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UNITED NATIONS

ECONOMIC BULLETIN FOR ASIA AND THE FAR EAST

FIRST QUARTER, 1951

Vol. II, No. 1

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Prepared by the

RESEARCH AND STATISTICS DIVISION

ECONOMIC COMMISSION FOR ASIA AND THE FAR EAST

BANGKOK, August 1951

INV. '60

The BULLETIN is intended to provide a regular review of the economic situation of Asia and the Far East in the intervals between the publication of the annual ECONOMIC SURVEY OF ASIA AND THE FAR EAST. Three issues of the BULLETIN are published annually, in August, November and February, covering the first, second and third quarters of the year respectively, and a Statistical Supplement which includes statistics for the fourth quarter is issued in June. The analysis of economic developments in the fourth quarter of the year is included in the ECONOMIC SURVEY OF ASIA AND THE FAR EAST. In addition to the general review of economic developments in the quarter and the compendium of Asian Economic Statistics on which it is based, the BULLETIN contains special articles on particular subjects related to the problems of the Asian economy.

The BULLETIN, which is prepared by the Research and Statistics Division of the Secretariat of the Economic Commission for Asia and the Far East, is published entirely on the responsibility of the Secretariat, and its contents, which are intended for the use both of governments and the general public, have not been submitted to the member Governments of the Commission before publication.

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Price of Vol. II, No. 1 of the **Economic Bulletin for Asia and the Far East** ... **$0.50**

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REVIEW OF THE ECONOMIC SITUATION IN ASIA AND THE FAR EAST

JANUARY—MARCH 1951

SUMMARY

PROGRESS was made in extending external economic aid to the region. Various steps were taken to implement the technical assistance programme of the United Nations, and the International Bank approved several loans. The Consultative Committee on Economic Development in South and South-east Asia met in February to make recommendations to the governments concerned for the central organization for the Colombo Plan. United States aid continued to Burma, Indochina, Indonesia, Taiwan and Thailand, and a "Point Four" agreement was signed with Nepal.

Reports on agricultural production indicated that no appreciable improvement in the food situation is to be expected this year and the position in India is likely to remain difficult. In the field of mining and industry within the region, there was an increase in the production of coal and electricity, but there were on the whole no very significant developments. In Japan there was a further sharp rise in steel production.

Exports from the region continued at a high level, owing to the strong world demand for and high prices of raw materials. Most countries in the region continued to have sizable export surpluses. Quantitative import restrictions were relaxed in some countries, but, on the other hand, some countries extended the protection given to domestic industries. Various measures were taken, mostly by countries outside the region but also by some within it, to limit exports of strategic materials to the mainland of China.

The strong upward movement of prices continued. It was especially noteworthy in Indonesia and Malaya, the two major exporters of rubber and tin. Freight rates rose sharply. Export duties were increased in some countries in order to limit the harmful effects of the rise in export prices, as well as to obtain increased revenue. Some countries were considering the imposition or extension of price control. Attempts to obtain international action to improve the supply position and lower the prices of some of the materials produced in the region met with little success.

EXTERNAL ECONOMIC AID

Progress was made during the quarter under review with the various *United Nations programmes of aid* to countries of the region. In January the first resident United Nations technical assistance representative to Pakistan took up his post. In February an agreement was signed whereby the Food and Agriculture Organization will give technical assistance to the Philippines. The FAO also entered into an agreement to provide a number of agricultural specialists to Ceylon, while the International Labour Office organized a mission to the same country to study the question of technical assistance within its own field. The International Bank was reported to have sanctioned a loan to Pakistan for the development of the Thal area in the Punjab, and the Bank announced in March that India and Thailand would receive loans for the improvement of transport. A number of countries expressed their willingness to contribute to the $250 million programme of Korean rehabilitation.

On 12 February a conference of the *Consultative Committee on Economic Development in South and South-east Asia*, consisting of officials from governments taking part in the Colombo Plan, began at Colombo. It was also attended by a representative of the United States Government. The principal business of the conference was to draw up recommendations for the future shape and membership of the central organization. The United Kingdom delegate stated that financial aid from the United Kingdom might amount to more than £300 million and that agreements had already been made for the release to India and Ceylon of £230 million from sterling balances, while negotiations on this subject were proceeding with Pakistan. The United Kingdom was also offering facilities for training in industry and was taking steps to increase university facilities. The Australian and Canadian delegates expressed the desire of their governments to help as much as possible with financial aid, technical assistance and training facilities. The United States representative said that his Government was interested in coordinating the Consultative Committee's work with that of the special technical and economic missions which it had organized to give assistance to Burma, Indochina, Indonesia and Thailand.

The communiqué issued at the conclusion of the meeting on 20 February referred to the statement of the

President of the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development that the Bank welcomed the opportunity to co-operate in the work of the Committee. The communiqué also mentioned the progress made with the *Technical Co-operation Scheme* and stated that, although the Bureau for Technical Co-operation had been established only at the end of December 1950, it was already functioning satisfactorily. Applications for technical assistance had been made by Ceylon, India and Pakistan and these covered a wide range of subjects. Offers of financial aid were received from Australia, Canada (Canadian $25 million in the first year), and New Zealand (£3 million in annual instalments of £1 million). On 22 February it was reported that Viet-Nam had decided to enter fully into the Plan, thus becoming the first state outside the Commonwealth to take this step. Other non-Commonwealth countries which attended the Colombo meeting were Burma, Cambodia, Indonesia and Thailand.

United States aid to the region continued at an accelerated pace. In January a "Point Four" agreement was signed with Nepal and it was announced that a mining expert would be sent from the United States to make a preliminary survey of mineral resources. The Economic Co-operation Administration approved in February a programme of rural reconstruction for Taiwan submitted by the Joint Commission on Rural Reconstruction. The ECA also made funds available to Burma for cotton yarn, material and technicians for rebuilding the port of Rangoon, iron and steel manufactures, medical supplies, vehicles and machinery; to Indochina for the purchase of machinery, motor vehicles, tractors, construction material, and textile and chemical products; to Indonesia for scientific instruments; to Taiwan for railway equipment, soybean and crude oil, and medical supplies; and to Thailand for the purchase of motor vehicles, fishing equipment, machinery, electrical equipment, rubber, and medical supplies. Under an agreement signed in January Indonesia is to receive credits from the Import-Export Bank totalling $52 million for the purchase of equipment and materials needed for reconstruction and development. This is part of the $100 million previously earmarked by the Bank for Indonesia. Among the larger items included are $20 million for vehicles, $17 million for railway equipment, $6 million for aeroplanes, and $7 million for dredgers and port reconstruction materials.

PRODUCTION

Agriculture

The United States Office of Foreign Agricultural Relations stated in March that, on the basis of the information then available, the world rice crop for 1950/51 (August -July) would show little change from the preceding year's, in spite of an increase in acreage of about 1.3 per cent. The crop in Asia, estimated at about 92 per cent of the world total, is expected to be about the same as in the preceding year. Most of the increased acreage was in Asia but severe losses have arisen because of droughts and floods. Production is reported to have declined in Ceylon, India, Indochina, Korea, Malaya and the Philippines, but have increased on the mainland of China and in Taiwan, Pakistan and Japan. Production in countries of the region which have a substantial surplus for export, viz. Burma and Thailand, is unlikely to vary much from that of the preceding year. Some countries of the region which have benefited from the increased demand for their products arising out of the Korean war and the world situation have increased their demand for rice, and exports may therefore be somewhat greater.

The region's production of natural rubber during the first quarter of 1951 was about 455,000 tons, which was 57,000 tons less than in the preceding quarter but 95,000 tons more than in the first quarter of 1950. In the United States, which is the largest purchaser of the region's rubber, stricter limitations were placed on the use of natural rubber as from 1 March.

Burma. The Government announced in March its intention to expand the soil conservation programme in the Shan State, where erosion has become a serious problem. The United States Economic Co-operation Administration is supplying a soil conservation specialist to assist in the programme and also some of the required equipment which cannot be obtained in Burma. In March also the Minister of Agriculture re-stated the Government's policy on land and said that it was the intention to proceed gradually with nationalization.

Ceylon. With a view to expanding food production the Government has been studying methods of assistance to cultivators, including the extension for a longer period, of the system of guaranteed prices for certain products. At present the system operates on a yearly basis. It was first applied to paddy and was later extended to other crops such as maize, sorghum and pepper. Progress was made with the Huruluwewa Restoration Scheme and by March 2,000 acres had been cleared and were being prepared for settlement by peasant farmers. In March also the Minister of Agriculture and Lands appointed a committee to enquire into the availability of Crown land for agricultural purposes. Rising costs for rubber, tea and coconut oil producers, who have been benefiting from the world

demand for their products, were a subject of concern, since the view was expressed that present prices would not be maintained. It was urged in the press that advantage should be taken of the present situation to rehabilitate rubber and coconut plantations. At the same time commentators continued to urge the desirability of diversifying Ceylon's economy by, among other things, increasing the production of foodstuffs, in order to reduce Ceylon's economic dependence on a few export crops.

China. The Central People's Government announced an Agricultural Production Plan for 1951 under which grain output is to be increased by 7.1 per cent over 1950 and cotton output by 36.9 per cent. Production of other agricultural commodities is to be raised by percentages ranging from 9 per cent for vegetable oil materials to 324 per cent for cured tobacco leaves. It is also planned to carry out extensive reafforestation and water control works. For these various purposes it is proposed to encourage the formation of voluntary associations which will be given preference in government aid and will be assisted in marketing their products. The Government has also undertaken to purchase and market at reasonable prices in relation to grain all cotton, tobacco and jute, with a view to encouraging production of these commodities.

India. The food situation arising mainly from crop failures due to adverse weather conditions was the cause of serious anxiety, and estimates of production of food crops indicated that the position was likely to remain difficult for some time. The Government aims at importing 3.7 million tons of foodstuffs in order to remedy the deficiency. The United States Department of Agriculture estimated a fall in foodgrain production in India this year of about 7 per cent. In March it was reported that cereal crops in Bihar, which had already been seriously affected by drought, had suffered extensive destruction by high winds. Estimates of the acreage under cotton released by the Government in February indicated an increase of about 10 per cent.

Indochina. An improvement in the agricultural situation in south Viet-Nam was reported as a consequence of security measures which have made it possible for cultivators to return to their farms in some areas and have brought about an improvement in communications.

Indonesia. Rubber production in the first quarter of 1951 was 200,000 tons, which was 2,000 tons less than in the preceding quarter but 83,000 tons more than in the first quarter of 1950. A two-year plan, for which the sum of R.15 million has been set aside, has been adopted with a view to making East Sumatra self-sufficient in rice. It involves the development of about 10,000 hectares of rice fields.

Malaya. Rubber production during the first quarter of 1951 amounted to 167,000 tons. It was 33,000 tons less than in the preceding quarter, the decline being partly seasonal, and only slightly larger than in the first quarter of 1950. Rapid progress was made with the resettlement programme in the State of Johore, where it is planned to put 70,000 peoples into completely new villages. More than half this number had been resettled by the end of the quarter. The object of the programme is to provide new homes where persons displaced from the rural areas by insurgent activities may follow agricultural and related pursuits in security.

Pakistan. In spite of flood damage in the Punjab, increases in the acreage under rice, wheat, gram and sesame were reported during the quarter. The East Pakistan Food Advisory Board recommended the continuance for another year of the system of procurement of foodgrains and the Board was said to have decided to keep rice procurement prices at the level of 1950. The Government has decided to increase the jute acreage in the coming year by 25 per cent, in view of the increasing demand for this commodity. The Government is also desirous of increasing cotton production and a scheme is under consideration for establishing five experimental centres in West Pakistan. In January the foundation-stone was laid of the new Institute of Cotton Research and Technology in Karachi. It was also announced that the FAO would send a number of agricultural experts to Pakistan to assist in the execution of the Government's various schemes of agricultural development.

Philippines. The output of copra during the first half of this year was expected to be larger than in the corresponding period of 1950 and possibly to reach the record production of 1947. Production of sugar, abaca and tobacco was also estimated to be substantially larger than in 1950. In March approval was given to a five-year plan for the development of tobacco production.

Thailand. The agriculture section of the National Economic Council advised the Ministry of Agriculture to establish a company for marketing secondary crops, particularly cotton and jute. It also advised the banning of cotton and jute exports in order to promote the domestic textile industry. The Government decided in January that, in view of possible future difficulties in

obtaining supplies, it would proceed immediately to invite tenders for equipment needed for the Chainat irrigation scheme.

Japan. Deliveries of the Government's purchases of the 1950 rice crop reached 100 per cent of the target figure, and stocks of foodstuffs under the control of the Government at the end of the quarter were roughly at the level of a year before. The prospects of obtaining adequate food imports in the coming year appeared, however, less favourable, owing to rising prices and freight rates and the reduction in the amount of United States aid. The outlook for raw silk in 1951 appeared promising. Cotton production was expected to be 20 per cent greater than in the previous year and production of raw silk was estimated at 190,000 bales.

Mining and Industry.

Production of coal in the four countries of the region for which figures are available, *viz.* India, Indochina, Malaya and Pakistan, rose both in comparison with the preceding quarter and the corresponding quarter of 1950. The increases were 9 per cent and 4 per cent respectively and were almost entirely accounted for by the expansion of production in India. There was a decline in coal production in Japan compared with the preceding quarter but an increase of 10 per cent over the first quarter of 1950. Production was still, however, running at a rate appreciably lower than in 1936.

Electricity production (Hong Kong, India and the Philippines) increased by 2 per cent over the preceding quarter and 15 per cent over the first quarter of 1950. There was a slight seasonal decline in Japan compared with the previous quarter but production was 13 per cent greater than in the first quarter of 1950.

Iron and steel production in India declined slightly compared with the last quarter of 1950 but production of finished steel was provisionally estimated at 9 per cent more than a year before. Steel production in Japan again rose sharply and was running at the rate of almost 5 million tons of finished steel a year or nearly 70 per cent greater than a year before.

Production of tin in concentrates was virtually unchanged from a year before and was slightly less than in the preceding quarter.

There was a further appreciable rise in cement production in the region. In Japan there was a decline compared with the preceding quarter but a rise of about 65 per cent compared with a year before.

Cotton yarn and fabric production recovered somewhat in India. In Japan there was no appreciable change compared with the previous quarter but production was substantially larger than a year before.

TABLE 1. OUTPUT OF PRINCIPAL INDUSTRIAL & MINERAL PRODUCTS IN THE ECAFE REGION[a]

(Monthly averages in thousand metric tons)

	1950				1951	Relative changes in 1st Quarter of 1951	
	1st Quarter	2nd Quarter	3rd Quarter	4th Quarter	1st Quarter	1st Quarter 1950=100	4th Quarter 1950=100
Tin in concentrates[p]	8.58	9.05	9.07	8.99	8.62	100	96
Coal	2.970	2.771	2.711	2.839	3.090	104	109
Electricity (million kwh)	461	483	491	517	529	115	102
Pig iron and ferro-alloys	145	131	139	155	146	101	94
Steel ingots and castings	120	112	124	130	124	103	95
Finished Steel	82	80	88	90	89[p]	109[p]	99[p]
Cement	250	236	249	275	293	117	107
Cotton Yarn	47.1	45.5	42.0	43.9	46.6	99	106
Sulphuric acid	7.79	8.46	9.03[p]	8.92[p]	7.13[p]	92[p]	80[p]

a. Countries included under each product are as follows:—
Tin in concentrates—Burma, China, Indochina, Indonesia, Malaya and Thailand.
Coal—India, Indochina, Malaya and Pakistan.
Electricity—Hong Kong, India and Philippines.
Cement—Hong Kong, India, Indochina and Thailand.
Pig iron and ferro-alloys, steel ingots and castings, finished steel, cotton yarn and sulphuric acid—India only.

p. Provisional.

Burma. The continued operation of the cottage weaving industry was aided by the arrival of part of the 5,000 bales of cotton yarn which are scheduled to be sent to Burma under the ECA programme as a supplement to regular imports.

The Government was reported to be negotiating with the Burmah Oil company for resuming production on a more extensive scale. The Company announced that Chauk, in the Central Burma oilfields, was now producing and refining about 40 per cent of Burma's total requirements of petroleum products and that it was planned to ship additional equipment to Chauk where production is to be doubled. The project for the rehabilitation of the Syriam refinery, however, has now been indefinitely suspended. The Prime Minister stated in March that the Government would endeavour to establish "joint ventures" of Burmese and foreign interests in industry and that negotiations were under way with the Burmah Oil Company and the Burmah Corporation, the two main British enterprises in the country.

Ceylon. In Ceylon the Government began to take stock of the need for industrial equipment and construction materials. Concern was expressed lest the inability to obtain capital goods may hold up the country's development plans.

It was reported that plans were being drawn up for the establishment of a state-owned textile factory with 25,000 spindles, 500 automatic looms and finishing machinery. One-fifth of the yarn output would be supplied to the hand-loom industry. The latter is currently in difficulties owing to the rise in price of imported cotton yarn and difficulties in obtaining supplies.

In January the Ministry of Industries invited tenders for the establishment of a caustic soda factory. In March tenders were also invited for a ceramics factory. A survey was being carried out in order to advise the Government on the establishment of a fertiliser factory in the North-Central Forest Division. The Public Accounts committee in the meantime expressed its grave concern at the losses which taxpayers were required to bear as a result of the activities of the Ministry of Industries.

China. The target set for the production of textiles in Shanghai in 1951 was announced as 28 per cent greater than the prewar record.

A new cotton mill, equipped with machinery imported from Japan and under the supervision of Japanese technicians started operations in the Taipeh area in January. It has 10,000 spindles and will use cotton obtained through the United States Economic Co-operation Administration. The mill was constructed by the China Textile Corporation as part of a plan to make Taiwan self-sufficient in cotton textiles.

India. It was reported that the Tata Iron and Steel Company's seven-year plan to raise the output of finished steel at Jamshedpur by 200,000 tons a year would shortly be put into operation. Negotiations were taking place with the Government for a loan to help in the financing of the scheme.

The Government of Madras has sanctioned the Tungabhadra Hydroelectric Power Project, which will eventually have five 7,500 kw. units. The first stage of the scheme, which will bring two units into operation, is expected to be completed in about four years.

The sulphuric acid industry was adversely affected by the inability to obtain adequate supplies of sulphur from the United States. Production was 20 per cent less than in the preceding quarter and 8 per cent less than in the corresponding quarter of 1950.

In February the Finance Minister announced the intention of the Government gradually to convert government-owned industries into limited companies. This has already been done in the case of the Hindustan Aircraft Company.

In March the Gwalior Rayon Silk Manufacturing Company of Delhi placed with an English firm a contract for the supply of £1 million of machinery, including a rayon staple fibre plant and machinery for producing fifteen tons of staple fibre a day.

Indochina. A report from Tokyo stated that the Yawata and Fuji Iron Works in Japan had started negotiations with the Government of Cambodia for the development of large magnetic iron deposits situated near the upper reaches of the Mekong. The mine is said to be capable of providing 500,000 tons of ore a year when in full operation.

Indonesia. The production of tin in concentrates in the first quarter was virtually the same as in the corresponding quarter of 1950 and about 9 per cent less than in the preceding quarter.

In March the Minister of Public Works announced that it was the Government's intention to nationalize electricity plants in Indonesia as soon as concessions to private companies have expired and that a commission would be set up to consider the best way to take over the plants as soon as possible.

Malaya. Tin production declined in the first quarter of 1951 by about 3 per cent both in relation to the preceding quarter and the first quarter of 1950. It appeared unlikely that production would increase in 1951, owing to the need for undertaking major repairs to some of the dredges and to the shortage of electric power. The proposal in the Federation's Six-year Development Plan to impose an export duty on tin at a rate varying with the type of ground worked was severely criticized by the industry as impracticable.

Pakistan. Various steps were taken during the quarter in pursuance of Pakistan's plans for industrial development. A new textile plant, the Zaib-tun Textile Mills Ltd., was opened in Karachi in January. Plant for the government-sponsored paper mill at Chandragona, near Chittagong, arrived in February, and machinery for the Adamji Jute Mills arrived in March. Official approval was given to several industrial projects, including a cement factory at Rohri, twenty footwear factories throughout the country, a textile mill in the Hyderabad district, two paper bag factories in Karachi and East Pakistan respectively, and seven textile mills in Karachi.

In January the Industries Minister stated that the Central and Punjab Governments had decided to set up five major industrial undertakings in the Thal area in North-West Punjab. These will comprise a fertilizer plant at Daudkhel, a cement factory in the Salt Range, a sugar mill at Khushab, a cotton mill at Gunjyal and a woollen textile mill at Darya Khan. Electric power for these undertakings will be obtained from the Mianwali hydro-electric scheme.

The Pakistan Tariff Commission's enquiry into the case for protection of the steel re-rolling industry was concluded in January. In order to assist the sports goods industry the Government increased the export duty on cow hides as from 1 January and placed linen thread and twine imports from Japan on Open General Licence as from 4 January.

Thailand. The Cabinet Council approved in March a proposal by the Ministry of Industry that 3 million baht should be appropriated for the expansion of the government rubber factory in Bangkok. Ministry of Commerce officials who recently returned from an inspection tour of Indian shellac factories began to take steps to advise the Thai lac industry on methods of improving the quality of its products. It is hoped that government aid will enable some of the factories which have closed to be reopened.

Japan. Labour disputes affected the production of coal during the first quarter of the year and there was also a seasonal decline in electric power production. In the iron and steel industry, however, the upward trend continued. Cement production was 9 per cent lower than in the preceding quarter but 66 per cent higher than a year before. Production of chemicals and machinery was higher in the case of most items, while production of cotton yarns and fabrics did not change appreciably. The shipbuilding industry continued to be active.

The problem of obtaining adequate supplies of materials to feed Japan's industrial machine continued to cause anxiety. Salt was one of the principal commodities about which concern was felt, owing principally to the rise in freight rates and shipping difficulties.

In March the occupation authorities transferred to the Japanese Government full authority over the refining and allocation of crude oil.

INTERNATIONAL TRADE

The continuation of the strong world demand for raw materials and the consequent rise in their prices since the Korean war were still the dominant factors in the sphere of international trade in the first quarter of 1951. As pointed out in the *Economic Survey of Asia and the Far East, 1950*, these had resulted in a considerable increase in exports and a change from a trade deficit to a trade surplus in most countries of the region in the second half of 1950. In the quarter under review, as can be seen from Table 2, this change continued; all the eleven ECAFE countries, except Indochina, had an export surplus attributable chiefly to the high level of exports which, in turn, was mainly due to high export prices. Even in Indochina, the import surplus during the quarter was reduced, as compared with 1950. Japan had a substantial import surplus, mostly because of imports under the United States aid programme. Along with the high level of exports, the value of imports also increased in most countries because of large foreign exchange earnings, relaxation of import control, and a rise in import prices, the extent of which was, however, more limited than that in export prices (see Table 4).

The quarter also witnessed the application of an embargo or control over exports of strategic raw materials especially to China and Hong Kong, and a rise in shipping freight rates, both of which were indirect results of the Korean war and the rearmament programmes. For example, it is reported that freight rates from the United Kingdom to Ceylon rose by 25 per cent with effect from 1 March 1951, from Bangkok to Japan from $7 to $10 per ton and to Europe from 140s. to 150s. per ton.

TABLE 2. INDICES OF VALUE OF EXTERNAL TRADE AND BALANCES OF TRADE

	Index of value of Imports (1st Quarter 1950 = 100)				Index of value of Exports (1st Quarter 1950 = 100)				Balances of trade (value in million units of national currency)				
	1950			1951	1950			1951	1950				1951
	II	III	IV	I	II	III	IV	I	I	II	III	IV*	I
North Borneo ...	133	151	207	184	121	175	250	252	+ 2	+ 2	+ 4	+ 6	+ 7
Burma	76	127	181	149	271	222	169	261	— 5	+ 9	+ 24	— 13	+ 29
Ceylon	140	131	123	147	116	141	169	180	+ 20	+ 5	+ 36	+ 71	+ 61
Hong Kong ...	96	105	144	156	113	156	184	228	— 58	— 17	+ 53	+ 6	+ 72
India	135	143	124	160	67	86	112	139	+162	—120	— 58	+143	+154
Indochina	97	153	134	132	87	135	145	207	—182	—188	—298	—233	—158
Indonesia	133	164	242	175	155	231	252	218	+ 44	+ 87	+156	+120	+131
Malaya	115	153	191	244	114	202	285	308	+ 17	+ 17	+119	+212	+165
Pakistan	111	158	176	196	117	133	136	331	+ 20	+ 27	+ 9	— 1	+162
Philippines ...	73	83	69	75	99	125	146	179	— 26	— 7	— 2	+ 18	+ 30
Thailand	98	104	114	121	96	111	117	148	+ 50	+ 44	+ 70	+ 68	+135
Japan	103	88	116	214	125	146	200	199	— 32	— 22	—	+ 3	— 75

Changes in Import Control and Protective Tariffs

Continuing the trend noted during the second half of 1950, quantitative import restrictions in several sterling area countries were further relaxed. In *Burma* the practice of issuing import licences liberally for most kinds of mineral oil was continued by putting them under the O.G.L. with retroactive effect from 1 July 1949. Applications were invited for the import of non-fabricated items of iron and steel from India, at first for the first quarter and later for the second quarter of 1951, as well as for the import of musical instruments, accessories and parts thereof from any country excepting American Account countries and Canada (including Newfoundland). However, as substantial amounts of O.G.L. goods, especially textiles had already been imported and stocks were abnormally high, the value of imports into Burma was lower than in the preceding quarter.

In *Ceylon* the existing O.G.L. was expanded to cover 43 more items, including mechanically propelled road vehicles, gas oil, diesel oil and mineral oils, asphalt, fertilizers, agricultural machinery and other kinds of machinery. Applications were invited for the import from the United States and other American Account areas before 30 June 1951 of 25 items, including iron and steel, electrical goods, cotton piecegoods, motorcar parts, paper and other essential goods. A number of notices were also issued calling for applications for permits to import from Japan cement, newsprint, paper, food and drink items, tyres and tubes and textiles. Applications for imports from other countries beside Japan and other currency areas were also called for, e.g. items such as butter, cheese and animal *ghee* from Australia, jute twine and jute hessians from India, lace and net from Switzerland.

In *India* the Government accepted many suggestions made by the Import Control Enquiry Committee, such as the issue of licences to cover currency areas rather than specific countries, maintenance of continuity of policy and centralization of all licensing work in one Ministry. In the import policy announced for January/June 1951 the Government classified countries into five currency areas, namely (a) the dollar area, (b) the hard currency area consisting of Japan, (c) the soft currency area consisting of all other countries except Pakistan and South Africa, (d) Pakistan and (e) South Africa. The Government also accepted the priorities laid down by the Committee for (1) a. raw materials of essential industries, b. spare parts and accessories, and c. consumer goods; (2) other raw materials and capital goods; (3) other essential goods; and (4) non-essential goods.

The Government announced a liberal import policy for 1951. In keeping with one of the suggestions of the Committee that the existing O.G.L. should be continued indefinitely, the Government decided that O.G.L. No. XX should be continued for a further period of six months beyond 31 December 1950. The liberal import policy also included doubling of the value of licences on some goods for the January/June 1951 period and extending the period of their validity up to 31 December. For these commodities, however, it was

disclosed that no more licences would be issued for July — December 1951. The existing O.G.L. No. XXI was enlarged to include certain essential raw materials. Certain articles for which no quotas had been available were licensed on a quota basis from soft currency countries. At the same time diesel engine parts and rubber-covered conveyer belting were removed from O.G.L. No. XXI, but it was made permissible to import from any source certain items on the O.G.L. which it had previously been permissible to import only from soft currency areas.

The Government, in following this new liberal import policy, allocated Rs. 163 million of foreign exchange for import of motor vehicles during January/June 1951, compared with Rs. 157 million during the previous half year. The Government also agreed to allow the import without licence of certain scientific materials and scientific films ordered with UNESCO coupons.

Arising out of the trade agreement with Pakistan, India announced in March that licences for import of Pakistan cotton would be issued freely and a new O.G.L. for specified imports from Pakistan was issued in conformity with the trade agreement.

In *Pakistan*, O.G.L. No. XI was issued on 4 January 1951 giving a new list of commodities, including tools and workshop equipment, chemicals, machinery from American Account countries, gas in cylinders, chemicals, machinery and millwork, cotton twist and yarn from Japan. Permission was given to import freely from all countries except the American Account Area, Japan, and India over 100 commodities, including iron and steel, metals, machinery, chemicals, dyes, electrical equipment, etc. Exchange control was also relaxed and the State Bank decided to waive further marginal deposit requirements for booking forward exchange for imports. It also reduced exchange deposits from 50 to 25 per cent in the case of goods under O.G.L.

In *Thailand* the new controls were mainly concerned with trade with Japan. The Bank of Thailand issued new regulations for the import of goods outside of the trade agreement and the provisions of the open account. Imports of such merchandise must be paid for in U.S. dollars to the Bank of Thailand. Rules for the operation of open account trade were also announced for imports, which could be made at a special exchange rate of 20 baht to one U.S. dollar, including such items as textiles (except coloured cloth, printed cloth, and silk and rayon fabrics), hardware and construction materials, sewing machines, bicycles, glassware, aluminium ware, machinery, motor vehicles, chemicals, dyes, rubber goods, paper and paper products etc.

In order to put its trade into more direct and free contact with other countries, *Japan*, in its foreign exchange budget for the first quarter of 1951, increased the number of items under the automatic approval system by twelve, including soybeans, chrome ore, pine oil and benzol, and cut down the budget for barter trade. The budget provided for imports of U.S.$525 million, of which $315 million was for imports from the dollar area, $105 million from the sterling area, and $105 million from countries with trade agreements or open accounts. In implementing the budget import licences were issued during January/February for the import of classified items. At the end of the quarter the foreign exchange budget was revised and increased to $687 million. Imports from the dollar area comprised more than 50 per cent of the total budget, while imports through the automatic approval system were slightly less than 50 per cent.

Although import control in some countries in the region was somewhat relaxed, its removal still appears far away. It appears likely in fact, to be an integral part of national economic policy for many years to come. In this connection governments took the opportunity to promote the participation in trade by their own nationals. Thus in *Indonesia* the trade policy still continued to be one of giving aid to Indonesian importers. The Government strictly reserved for new Indonesian importers certain commodities which were easy to sell at an assured profit, including cheap textiles, pharmaceuticals and certain foods.

In *Burma* trade circles suggested to the Government that it should issue at least Rs. 100,000 worth of import licences to each Burmese importer. At present 60 per cent of import licences are reserved for Burmese nationals and 40 per cent for foreign importers.

Protective tariffs were given serious consideration in India and Pakistan. However, it is not clear how far some countries in the region will shift the emphasis from quantitative import control to the effective use of import duties.

In *India* the Tariff (Amendment) Bill passed by the House in March is designed to amend the Indian Tariff Act of 1934, so that the Government may in emergency cases impose protective duties by notification on the recommendation of the Tariff Board which, however, must be followed by formal legislation. It continued for a further period of three years the concessions granted under the General Agreement on Trade and

Tariffs. It increased the protective duty on grinding wheels by 100 per cent *ad valorem* and also gave protection to the lead pencil industry for a period of two years by converting the existing revenue duty into a protective one. It also gave protection to the button and oil lamp industries by converting existing revenue duties into protective ones. It, however, reduced the import duty on raw silk from Japan from 30 per cent *ad valorem* plus Rs.12 per pound to 30 per cent *ad valorem* plus Rs.6/8 per pound, owing to the increased landed cost of Japanese raw silk.

In *Pakistan* a new list of import tariffs was announced for the year 1951. The import duty on Indian cigarettes was to be charged $1\frac{1}{4}$ per cent of the rebate admissible in respect of the Indian duty plus $27\frac{1}{2}$ per cent of the wholesale market price. Reductions of 5 to 20 per cent in import duties for the year 1951/52 were made for such items as coal and coke, pitch and tar, mineral oil, nickel, drugs, unwrought aluminium ingots, pig iron, and iron alloys, and in other cases the duties were completely abolished. The Tariff Commission made preliminary enquiries into the woollen industry and the glassware industry, and it was reported that enquiries would be held into other industries, such as iron and steel, soap, paint, machine tools, diesel oil engines, etc.

High Prices and Control over Export of Raw Materials

The large world demand for and the shortage of raw materials have resulted in rising prices. Exports of strategic raw materials in many countries were put under control or even completely banned, especially to China and Hong Kong. The rise in the prices of selected raw materials exported from the region was very great in the quarter under review, as can be seen from Table 3. As compared with a year ago, the price of rubber trebled and that of tin and hides more than doubled. The price of cotton rose by about 80 per cent, and that of copra, coconut oil and jute by 30 to 40 per cent. The rate of rise was especially high during the quarter as compared with the last quarter of 1950. The quantity of these commodities exported, with the exception of cotton, although higher than a year before, was more than 10 per cent less than in the last quarter of 1950, thereby indicating the seriousness of the shortage of raw materials.

This shortage of raw materials caused great concern in the consuming countries, especially the United States and the United Kingdom. Measures were adopted to bring down prices and lessen the impact of the shortage. The United States Government decided to take over exclusively the importation and distribution of natural rubber so as to be able to buy rubber at a lower price. The price of natural rubber has increased greatly since January 1950. It was costing the United States 67d. per pound, although the production cost of synthetic rubber was only about 14d. per pound. The President of the United States therefore approved a plan early in the year to put synthetic rubber production on a capacity basis. Output at capacity was estimated at about 848,000 tons per year. It was also reported that steps were being taken for the production of natural

TABLE 3. WHOLESALE PRICE INDICES[a] OF SELECTED COMMODITIES

(First quarter 1950 = 100)

	1950			1951
	II	III	IV	I
Copra (Manila)	98	104	105	135
Coconut oil (Manila)	95	100	107	131
Cotton (Karachi)	104	137	141[b]	184
Jute (Narayangunj)	106	99	93	139
Hides (Calcutta)	84	101	108	212
Ruber (Singapore)	145	241	338	406
Tin metal (Singapore)	103	131	171	225

a. Based on national price quotations.

b. December only.

rubber in the United States. As regards tin, the United States decided to stop stockpiling until prices declined to what it considered to be a reasonable level. Meanwhile, the National Production Authority put all domestic users of tin under allocation control from 1 May, 1951, and drastic restrictions were put on the civilian use of tin, in order to ensure sufficient supplies for military and essential civilian needs. Tin consumption in the United States was about 14,000 tons per month. Mainly as a result of the action taken by the United States, the prices of rubber and tin fell slightly toward the end of the quarter.

Prices of copra and coconut oil also fell slightly in the first half of March, partly owing to the slackening of demand from the United States and Europe where buyers felt that the prices for coconut oil and copra had already reached dangerously high levels. It was also influenced slightly by the 'rollback' of prices of American cotton seed oil, soybean oil and corn oil.

International action was also sought to solve the problem of raw material shortage. A ten-nation conference representing major producing and consuming countries of rubber, namely the United Kingdom, the United States, France, Canada, Ceylon, Indonesia, Italy, Holland, Thailand and Viet-Nam, was held during February and March but had to adjourn without reaching any agreement. Apart from the question of prices the possibility of a multilateral trade pact on the pattern of the International Wheat Agreement was considered. This proposal was to be followed up at the next meeting of the conference to be held in Rome in April. The conference reached no agreement because of the wide divergence of views between producers and the consumers. The Americans insisted that a fair price for natural rubber should be in the neighbourhood of 3s. 6d. a pound, whereas the market price was around 5s. 7d. The producing countries were reported to be opposed to any arrangement aimed at keeping the price of rubber at an artificially low level. Ceylon was stated to have obtained the right of veto on any decisions taken at such international conferences.

The International Tin Conference met in Washington during March but failed to find a basis for an international allocation system or for the fixing of prices. The conference was attended by representatives from the United States, the United Kingdom, Holland, Belgium, Bolivia and Indonesia. The United States Government was stated to have submitted a plan for the international allocation of tin supplies so that defence purchases would not cause speculation and hoarding by producers and traders and in order that the supplies of such material should be made available mainly or only for "non-communist" nations. It was also reported that the United States at present had a tin stockpile sufficient for three years at the current rate of consumption. Producing countries are said to have pointed out that, comparatively speaking, the price of tin was not too high in relation to other stategic materials. While there had been only a five-fold increase in the price of tin, as compared with the prewar period, lead was eight times and zinc eleven times the prewar price. Such commodities as lead and zinc, however, were available in sufficient quantities for consumption in the United States.

The International Cotton Advisory Committee met during February in Pakistan. The Committee was established at a time when the world was burdened with surplus of cotton, while its 10th meeting occurred in a period of inadequate supplies. The purpose of the Committee had been to keep the world cotton situation under review and to enable its members to understand better each other's problems and policies, as well as to facilitate the collaboration of its members in the solution of mutual problems. The ICAC reviewed the developments of 1950/51 and the disparity between world supplies and requirements of cotton. World consumption had now reached 32 million bales per year as compared with last year's 29.3 million bales. Prices of cotton had also climbed to peaks never reached before in the twentieth century and also out of relation to the general price structure. The short supply position of cotton was aggravated by the decision of the United States to reduce its shipments to communist-controlled areas, thus causing pressure on supplies from other producing countries.

Closely connected with the high prices and shortage of raw materials was the embargo placed by the United States on exports of strategic materials to China and Hong Kong. The policy of the United Kingdom was stated to be that it would control the export of strategic goods and materials in order to safeguard its own requirements, and it was pointed out that there already existed a system of controls for this purpose both in the United Kingdom and in the Far Eastern colonies. It was also stated in London at the end of February that the United Kingdom would stop any further shipments of oil from Hong Kong to the mainland of China and that there had been no shipment of petroleum since November 1950 except one of 308 barrels to repay a loan made by the Peking authorities to a British salvage vessel. France banned the export of metalware and industrial raw materials to Hong Kong and the mainland of China.

In *Hong Kong* the Government issued in March a new list of raw materials the export of which was prohibited except under licence. These included aluminium, copra, brass, nickel and other metals, rubber, tyres and tubes, and photographic films. It was officially stated that the action was taken mainly in the interests of local industries which found it difficult to obtain sufficient quantities of raw materials.

In the *Philippines* the Government prohibited the export of any strategic raw materials to the mainland of China, north Korea, Hong Kong and Macao. It also decided to ban exchange remittances to the mainland of China.

During March certain changes in export policy took place in *Malaya*. Iron and steel products and non-ferrous metals were placed in the category of goods of which the export was prohibited, except to British Borneo. Iron and steel scrap, building materials, foodstuffs, motor cars and trucks were placed in the category of exports which would be considered on the merits of each case. Chemicals, canned foodstuffs and sewing machines were placed in the category of commodities for which export in reasonable quantities would be allowed, except to Hong Kong. Newsprint, coke, nitrogenous fertilizers, zinc plate, motor vehicles and tractors were placed in the category of goods to be exported in reasonable quantities to British Borneo.

In March the re-export to Hong Kong of goods of hard currency origin was prohibited by the Government of Singapore. It was stated that re-exports to Hong Kong had increased considerably in the previous two months, coincident with the American ban on exports to Hong Kong, and that the prohibition was necessary to conserve dollars for goods essential to the Colony and the Federation.

There was a sharp increase in the export of raw cotton from *Pakistan*. In spite of high prices and a four-fold increase in the export duty, it was reported that foreign buyers remained keen to secure every available bale of cotton. China, Hong Kong and Japan were reported to have jointly secured nearly 70 per cent of the current crop and it appeared likely that the total exportable surplus from Pakistan of 1.150.000 bales would be disposed of by the end of March, which would be six months before the new crop comes on to the market.

It was announced that the Central Peoples' Government of China had banned all further shipments of carpet wool from Tientsin and Shanghai to the United States, and the export of foodstuffs and livestock to Hong Kong.

The export policy in *India* continued to be one of conserving potential supplies for domestic use. A ban was placed on exports of copper, brass, groundnuts and groundnut oil. The export of cotton yarn and fine and superfine cloth was also suspended. A quota of 20 million yards of medium and coarse cloth was fixed for the first half of 1951 for hard currency countries, which was not increased even after the quota was exhausted. The quota for soft currency countries was fixed at 100 million yards.

On the other hand, Pakistan relaxed their export control of non-strategic commodities. *Pakistan* issued two Open General Licenses superseding O.G.L. No. II. The first one permitted the export of 10 items, including beer, castor seeds, chrome ore, cow hide and sheep skins, provided they were processed or manufactured in Pakistan. The second O.G.L. permitted the export of raw goat skins to the American Account Area.

In *Ceylon* the exchange regulations were relaxed so that a person outside the sterling area could, if he so desired, transfer his investment in a sterling area country to purchase, for example, tea, rubber and coconut shares in Ceylon. This relaxation, which does not apply to investment in any new undertaking within Ceylon, brought Ceylon into line with the laws existing in the United Kingdom and other dominions in respect of the transfer of investments.

Working of Trade Agreements

During the quarter 25 trade agreements were negotiated and/or finalized by countries of the region, of which 18 were with countries outside the region and seven with countries within the region. Most of these agreements were contracted as previous ones had expired, and only a few were between countries which had not signed trade agreements with each other in post-war years. They provided as usual for the issuance of licences, and trade plans were given as targets for achievement, with provisions for balanced trade.

Out of the 25 agreements negotiated and/or finalized, India accounted for 14, of which nine were with countries outside the region; Pakistan for five agreements, of which four were with countries outside the region; and Indonesia for four agreements, of which three were with countries outside the region. Most of the extra-regional agreements were with European countries.

Some of the trade agreements negotiated by India arose out of the conclusion of the European Payments Union, which made many European countries a soft currency area for India. Thus, the trade agreements negotiated between India and such countries as Hungary, Poland and Sweden were presumably the results of India's attempt to obtain certain advantages in exchange for India's treatment of these countries as a soft currency area.

One of the special features of trade agreements signed with countries outside the region was the provision made in Pakistan's trade agreement with Spain for the supply of about 24,000 tons of raw jute (in addition to the amounts already stated in the main body of the agreement) to be manufactured into jute products by Spain and payment for which would be made in raw jute. It was estimated that Pakistan's annual requirement of jute manufactures was about 50,000 tons.

The rice contract of Thailand with the United Kingdom for the export of rice to British colonies in Asia was renewed. In Thailand it was reported that the Government had raised its rice export target for the current year to 1.3 million tons which was 100,000 tons larger than last year's target. Of this quantity, 1.2 million tons had already been contracted for shipment, of which 415,000 tons are to go to British territories, 300,000 tons to India, 100,000 tons to the Philippines and 50,000 tons to Indonesia.

The United Kingdom bulk buying of tea was drawing to a close and the London tea market was scheduled to reopen in April after an interval of 11 years. It was expected that Ceylon would complete its deliveries under the current bulk contract by 30 April, after which date its tea would be sold at public auctions in Colombo and London. In anticipation of the opening of the London auctions, Ceylon's producers offered to send about 78 million pounds of tea from the 1951 output. This offer, however, was reported to be excessively weighted in respect of high-grade tea. It was feared that this might affect the local tea auctions, as if an insufficient amount of high-grade tea was available for the Colombo auctions, foreign buyers might not be interested in entering the local market. The Government's policy with reference to tea marketing was to retain about 170 million pounds for sale at the Colombo auctions while allowing 100 million pounds for the United Kingdom market and 30 million pounds for private forward contracts. In order to bring this about the Government ordered the scaling down of the quantity of high-grade tea offered for shipment to the London auctions.

Out of Pakistan's annual production of tea of about 45 million pounds it usually exported 33.3 million pounds, of which about 30.6 million pounds were for the United Kingdom. With the latter's suspension of bulk purchases of tea it became necessary for Pakistan to find new and large markets for its tea. Up to the middle of 1951, however, Pakistan would be able to sell about 14 million pounds out of the 1950 bulk buying tea contract. The Government therefore constituted the Pakistan Tea Board to promote the sale and consumption of Pakistan's tea. Pakistan had its own problems in the marketing of tea, mainly arising out of the slightly higher price of Pakistan's tea in the world market in relation to Indian and Ceylon tea, as a result of the non-devaluation of the Pakistan rupee.

Usually a large number of trade agreements with Japan are negotiated. In this quarter, however, only Thailand signed such an agreement, possibly because Japan was gradually shifting to normal, direct, and freer trade with other countries. To facilitate trade through direct normal channels Japan was preparing to set up agencies to look after Japanese commercial interests in Burma, Thailand, the United Kingdom, Belgium and the Netherlands. In the new foreign exchange budget for January-March 1951, barter trade was cut down and the number of items under the Automatic Approval System was increased.

The trade agreement signed between Thailand and Japan provides for the export of 300,000 tons of Thai rice. The Japanese Government during January invited tenders for the supply of 220,000 tons of rice under this agreement. It was also reported that this was the result of the lifting by SCAP of controls over shipment of Thai rice to Japan and that the rice trade with Japan would now be open to private traders. From the beginning of the year until 10 March 1951 Thai imports from Japan totalled $10 million, while its exports only aggregated $6.8 million. It was reported that Japanese textiles and other goods had increased in price while an unusual change in business conditions was that Japanese machinery became more costly than that from Europe.

The most noteworthy trade agreement signed between countries of the region was the Indo-Pakistan agreement. This was signed following the recognition of the value of the Pakistan rupee by India. After the exchange deadlock arising out of the non-devaluation of the Pakistan rupee, no proper trade had taken place between the two countries, although a makeshift trade agreement was signed on 21 April 1950 valid for a period of three months. It was hoped that the new agree-

ment would restore to a large extent the pre-devaluation volume of trade, as it provided for the inclusion of a list of commodities to be placed on open general licence by both countries. It was expected that both countries would benefit greatly from this new trade agreement. Not only would the jute and cotton textile mills of India benefit but Pakistan would obtain needed coal, cement, iron and steel products etc. One of the immediate effects of the arrangements was the rise in the price of raw cotton in Pakistan from Rs.160 per maund to Rs.200 per maund. It was understood that there might be initial difficulties in the implementation of the agreement partly because of the supply position of raw cotton and raw jute in Pakistan. It was, however, agreed that should Pakistan introduce destinational quotas for cotton, then India would be given a quota of 400,000 bales from the 1951/52 cotton crop. The difficulties of supply were realized and up to April 30 less than 100.000 bales had been loaded. In the prevailing circumstances, this was considered satisfactory. It was agreed that it would take some time for the machinery of exchange to get into operation again. However, it was reported that the Government of India had credited Pakistan's account with Rs.40 million for working the trade agreement and this account would be adjusted between the two countries. For coal, it was understood that payment would be made in Indian currency to the Reserve Bank of India in Calcutta.

It was reported that trade talks would soon be held between the Philippines and the United States Government for a new trade treaty to replace the Bell Trade Act of 1946 which, amongst other things, provided, as an interim measure, for the duty-free entry of United States goods into the Philippines and for a graduated scale of increase in import duties on such goods as sugar imported into the United States. It was also reported that a plan was under consideration by the Philippines for the conclusion of a barter agreement with Spain. It was pointed out that Philippine trade with Spain had not yet reached prewar levels, mainly owing to the fact that no trade agreements had yet been made between the two countries. Trade circles in Pakistan were pressing for an agreement between Pakistan and the Soviet Union, inasmuch as Pakistan's trade with that country during 1949/50 was much greater than the 1948/49 volume. During 1949/50 Pakistan's exports to the Soviet Union were valued at Rs.45 million and its imports at Rs.12 million, and the Soviet Union was Pakistan's biggest customer for cotton during the ten months following the non-devaluation of the Pakistan rupee. It was also pointed out that the Soviet Union was in a position to supply Pakistan with a large quantity of capital goods.

The New Trade System in Indochina

In Indochina a new foreign trade system was established. Up to 31 December 1950 a simple and centralized Foreign Trade Administration was directed from Saigon for regulating the foreign trade of the three States. With independence, Cambodia, Laos and Viet-Nam each desired to control its own trade. After a period of interim arrangements, on 15 February 1951 a new regime was established. This new regime provided for free trade between Cambodia, Laos and Viet-Nam and other countries of the French Union. A committee for the study of foreign trade, as a permanent working organ, was established to act as a liaison body for exchange of information amongst the Associated States and France, and to formulate recommendations and proposals designed to promote economic relations between the Associated States and France. The questions to be covered included national plans for imports, exports, preferential tariffs and trade agreements etc. It was agreed that products of common interest should be regulated by special import and export regulations. The temporary committee made a list of imports consisting of pharmaceutical products, jute yarn, fabrics and sacks, cotton yarn and fabrics, petroleum products, cycles, motor cycles, automobiles and accessories, and an export list consisting of rice and rice derivatives and rubber which were to be considered products of common interest. An Intergovernmental Conference will meet regularly to consider export and import plans and any other matters regarding trade. Detailed rules of procedure were also laid down for implementing the new regime.

PRICE MOVEMENTS

The Inflationary Tendency

The upward movement of prices since the middle of 1950 continued in the first quarter of 1951. It was especially striking in Indonesia and Malaya, the two major rubber and tin exporting countries. The cost of living indices of these two countries were respectively 70 and 32 per cent higher than a year before, and the rate of increase during the quarter was also higher as compared with previous quarters. Prices rose to such a high level in Indonesia that there were rumours of a further devaluation of the rupiah. There were also increases in the cost of living indices, though less pronounced, in Thailand, Viet-Nam, Hong Kong, Ceylon, India, Pakistan and Japan. In Pakistan, however, the index did not exceed the level of a year ago.

TABLE 4. INDICES OF PRICES

(1st Quarter 1950 = 100)

Countries	Period	Wholesale Price	Cost of Living	Unit value of Exports	Unit value of Imports
BURMA	1950 II Qr.	97	97	98	105
	III Qr.	108	104	99	95
	IV Qr.	115	93	123	48
	1951 I Qr.	106	91	125	51
CEYLON	1950 II Qr.		99	96	99
	III Qr.		102	107	99
	IV Qr.		102	128	104
	1951 I Qr.		105	140	110
HONG KONG	1950 II Qr.		94		
	III Qr.		95		
	IV Qr.		95		
	1951 I Qr.		103		
INDIA	1950 II Qr.	101	101	105	99
	III Qr.	105	105	104	98
	IV Qr.	106	103	105	106
	1951 I Qr.	109	106	114	121
INDONESIA[a]	1950 II Qr.		112	107	..
	III Qr.		106	149	..
	IV Qr.		113	191	..
	1951 I Qr.		170	244	..
MALAYA	1950 II Qr.		103	114	103
	III Qr.		111	155	116
	IV Qr.		118	219	143
	1951 I Qr.		132	253	150
PAKISTAN	1950 II Qr.		97		
	III Qr.		97		
	IV Qr.		97		
	1951 I Qr.		99		
PHILIPPINES	1950 II Qr.	94	97	106	89
	III Qr.	97	100	114	99
	IV Qr.	106	105	121	105
	1951 I Qr.	103	105	124	109
THAILAND	1950 II Qr.	104	104		
	III Qr.	107	99		
	IV Qr.	112	102		
	1951 I Qr.	110	112		
VIET-NAM	1950 II Qr.	99	101	92	86
	III Qr.	113	105	131	98
	IV Qr.	115	107	125	96
	1951 I Qr.	117	109	145	105
JAPAN	1950 II Qr.	101	95		
	III Qr.	111	98		
	IV Qr.	121	98		
	1951 I Qr.	139	109		

a. Figures under cost of living are index of food prices only

Higher import prices as a result of larger defence programmes and world-wide inflation also contributed to the rise in the general price level. Table 4 shows that import prices in Ceylon, India and Malaya were much higher than in the preceding quarter and respectively about 10, 20 and 50 per cent higher than a year ago. In Indonesia, heavy government expenditure, strikes and disturbances which decreased output, and the crop failure as a consequence of floods, also contributed to the price rise.

As in the previous two quarters, the rise in prices in most ECAFE countries was chiefly due to high export prices and a large export surplus, accompanied by monetary expansion. The magnitude of the export surplus of various countries is shown in Table 2. The expansion of currency and credit can be seen from Table 5. Currency circulation increased considerably in Malaya, Ceylon, India, Thailand, the Philippines and Japan. Available information also indicated an increase in deposit money in Ceylon, Indochina, Indonesia, Thailand and Japan, and an increase in bank clearings in Hong Kong, India and Thailand.

TABLE 5. INDICES OF CURRENCY, DEPOSIT MONEY AND BANK CLEARINGS

(1st Quarter 1950 = 100)

	Currency				Deposit money				Bank Clearings			
	1950			1951	1950			1951	1950			1951
	II	III	IV	I	II	III	IV	I	II	III	IV	I
Burma	100	94	89	106	105	116	106	103	114	123	118	135
Ceylon	103	113	111	143	103	115	129	149[a]	103	134	132	144
Hong Kong	100	100	101	101	..	..	..	..	108	161	179	184
India	103	98	99	107	99	99	101	102	96	96	99	124
Indochina [b]	..	..	..	..	96	101	112	121	..	..	..	..
Indonesia	102	114	132	..	64	80	99	124[a]	..	..	..	..
Malaya	102	114	115	169	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Philippines	101	105	114	121	107	110	126	113	100	97	101	..
Thailand	101	105	120	*145*	101	106	119	*121*	101	123	134	156
Japan	99	103	120	127	102	106	112	129	114	125	154	167

a. January only.

b. Deposit money figures refer to total deposits.

In *Burma* the cost of living index for Rangoon during January and February was unchanged from the previous quarter but was many points below that of the first quarter of 1950. This was brought about in spite of a favourable balance of trade amounting to Rs.29 million, compared with a negative balance of Rs.13 million in the previous quarter and Rs. 5 million in the first quarter of 1950. The reasons for the comparative stability in the cost of living were that the export surplus was mainly accounted for by exports of rice which did not affect the food supply within the country and that supplies of textiles and other commodities were adequate as a result of the liberal import policy in the second half of 1950 and also in 1951, which had led to an expectation that prices would fall. The decline in the cost of living took place in spite of monetary expansion, as can be seen from the indices of currency in circulation and of bank clearings. The percentage of short term credit given by commercial banks to total deposits also rose to 71 per cent from 44 per cent in the previous quarter and 42 per cent in the first quarter of 1950.

In *Thailand*, although the Bangkok cost of living index increased by about 10 per cent as compared with the previous quarter, the wholesale price index fell slightly. The fall in wholesale prices was mainly due to the rice payment system of the Thai government. Largely as a result of the growing volume of rice exports and the Government's practice of paying for its rice purchases only out of funds received from resale to foreign countries, it was reported during the quarter that there was a cash shortage in the local market. About 150 million baht were said to be tied up by millers who were waiting payment from the Government Rice

Purchasing Bureau for 305,000 tons shipped in the first two months of the year.

In *Japan*, the rise in prices was due not only to the procurement programmes for supporting the Korean war but was also attributed to the rise in prices of raw materials which Japan had to import. The delay in the collection of taxes in the quarter was another factor which accounted for the large volume of purchasing power contributing to the high level of prices. The increase in money income and expenditure generated mainly from the increased investment in producers' goods affected the prices of consumers' goods. The price rise was not confined mainly to producer's goods as was the case following the outbreak of the Korean war but was more general and included consumer's goods as well. Some levelling-off of prices occurred at the end of the quarter, owing partly to the improvement in the world situation and the dumping on to the market of hoarded goods from the United States and elsewhere, as a result of the improved situation. It is to be noted that prices in Japan rose during the quarter, in spite of the abnormally large import surplus.

Export Duties for Checking Inflation

Since the rise in the price level was generated from high export prices and large export surpluses in most ECAFE countries, some of them either adopted flexible export duties or increased their rates, in order to stabilize prices by absorbing excess profits and purchasing power. This was done also partly to increase government revenue.

In *Malaya* a sliding-scale of export duty was introduced. The old 5 per cent *ad valorem* export duty on Malayan rubber was replaced by a new sliding-scale formula, with effect from 1 January 1951. The duty was fixed at 3 cents when Malayan rubber costs 60 cents a pound; 18 cents when it costs 120 cents, and 82 cents when it costs 200 cents. The price to be used for assessing the export duty is to be the one prevailing in the preceding quarter.

In *Ceylon*, higher export duties were levied, increasing the duty on rubber from 15 to 50 cents per pound, on tea from 53 to 60 cents per pound, on copra from Rs.75 to Rs.100 per candy, on coconut oil from Rs.244 to Rs. 325 per ton, on coconut poonac from Rs.100 to Rs.200 per ton, and on pepper from Rs.2 to Rs. 2.5 per pound. New export duties of 25 cents per pound on cocoa and Rs. 2 per pound on cardamon and citronella oil were also levied. Although these increases were mainly for revenue purposes, it is probable that they were also intended in part to check the rise in prices, although the present taxes were expected to absorb only about 30 per cent of the windfall profits being obtained. Boom prices continued in the export trade, however, partly because the taxes were not high enough, especially in the case of rubber, where trade circles had anticipated a rubber tax as high as from 75 cents to Re. 1 per pound, but mainly because of the increasing demand for Ceylon's export products.

In *Thailand* the duty on rubber was increased in February from 70 satangs per kilogramme to 1.05 baht per kilogramme. This tariff increase in Thailand was achieved by raising the basic price of rubber from 10 to 15 baht.

In *Pakistan*, the Government decided to change the method of levying export duties on hides and skins from the value given in the tariff schedule to market value. It was also expected that the export duty on cotton alone would bring in Rs.270 million more to the State.

In *India*, export duties were increased slightly. The duty on sacking was raised from Rs.150 per ton to Rs.350 per ton. Changes were also made in the export duties on handloom textiles, cotton waste and black pepper but these were soon reduced again to the former rates.

Price Control and other Measures for Price Stability

In case export duties should prove insufficient to check inflation, several countries in the region were studying ways and means of price control. In *Ceylon*, the government decided to make a survey of prevailing prices in order that controls might be introduced if necessary, that is to say, if it discovered that there was any large scale profiteering in the sale and distribution of articles of an essential or semi-essential nature. The items chosen for the survey included imported cement, wire nails, stationery, cycle tyres and tubes, and electric cables and fittings. In order to combat inflation the Government sent a Ministerial Mission to Burma which successfully negotiated a trade agreement for the supply of rice. It was hoped that an assured supply of rice would bring down the cost of food.

In *Malaya* the Government set up a committee in January to investigate the necessity for commodity and price control. The Committee made enquiries into prices of eight types of commodities, namely (1) local produce, (2) imported foodstuffs, drinks and tobacco, (3) textiles, (4) building materials, (5) machinery and ships' stores, (6) locally produced fuel, (7) medicines and drugs, and (8) other essential commodities. The Committee reported in February; amongst the various reasons given

for the high prices ruling in Singapore mention was made of the increase in import prices, the increase in export prices resulting in a shift of labour from food crops to non-food crops, such as rubber, the increasing demand for better quality and greater quantities of food, and the emergency situation and the resettlement of squatters which retarded the supply of fresh foodstuffs. The Committee recommended 14 points on which action might be taken, including stricter control of re-exports, establishment of government-controlled shops and mobile distribution, enforcement of price tagging on merchandise, a purchase tax on luxury articles, the proceeds of which should be used to subsidize foodstuffs and publication of price lists by Chambers of Commerce showing landed costs, wholesale prices and fair retail prices. One of the difficulties pointed out by the Government in introducting price controls was said to be the reluctance on the part of the Singapore public to co-operate fully. The Government also planned additional measures to combat inflation, including a M$10 million premium bond issue and a big savings drive campaign through post office savings bank and other means. It was hoped that these measures would absorb about M$50 million a year. Trade circles urged the Government to release more hard currency for importing milk and tinned fish from America, dried fish from Japan and vegetables from Sumatra.

In *India* the increase in prices was due, among other things, to the removal on 9 March of control over prices of jute manufactures and the grant of an interim increase of 35 per cent in the price of rubber, with effect from 7 March. The Government however continued fixing prices on certain goods and under the terms of the Supply and Prices of Goods Act, 1950, it fixed the maximum prices of soda ash and of cycle tyres and tubes. It also brought sulphur within the Act, with a view to ensuring equitable distribution among essential consumers.

In *Pakistan*, in spite of the stability of the cost of living index in Karachi, it was reported that the Government was planning rigid price controls, to be supplemented by a country-wide network of co-operative stores, in order to bring down the cost of living and thereby increase national savings to be utilized in financing development schemes.

TRADE AGREEMENTS NEGOTIATED AND/OR FINALIZED DURING THE FIRST QUARTER, 1951.

I. ECAFE COUNTRIES—EXTRA-REGIONAL COUNTRIES.

Contracting parties	Period valid	Value of trade and types of commodities	Type of agreement	Remarks
India-Austria	1 November 1950-31 October 1951	Total trade of Rs. 60 million. Austria's exports include woollen yarn, hand-knitting wool, woollen hosiery and knitted apparel.		Renewal of the old agreement for December 1950/January 1951.
India-Egypt	1 March 1951-29 February 1952	India's exports include 4,000 tons of tea, 2,000 tons of manufactured tobacco, 1,000 tons each of groundnut oil and groundnut seed, 100 tons of linseed oil, 1,000 tons of linseed, 500 tons of castor oil, 100 tons of shellac, 200 tons of coffee, 500 tons of grey cotton piecegoods, 100 tons of tanned hides, and iron and steel manufactures valued at £10,000, cutlery at £5,000, electrical goods at £5,000, rubber tyres and tubes except giant tyres at £20,000, woollen manufactures at £10,000, Indian drugs and medicines at £6,500 and pottery at £1,000. Egypt's exports include 300,000 bales of raw cotton, 550 tons of cotton yarn of counts 80's and above, 107,000 tons of gypsum suitable for manufacture of cement and 6,500 tons of flax suitable for linen making.		Signed in New Delhi on 17 March. This new agreement was concluded following the expiry of the old agreement in July 1951 and the make shift barter pact of 1951 for exchange of Egyptian rice against jute goods. Under the new agreement no provision however has been made for jute and rice which it is understood will be covered by a separate agreement. The present agreement also provides that each country shall accord the other most-favoured-nation treatment.
India-Finland	1951	Each country to export commodities which are in short supply in the other.	Issuance of licences.	Exchange of trade letters in New Delhi on 12 January 1951. India previously had an agreement with Finland which expired on 31 May 1950.
India-West Germany		India's exports consisting of jute manufactures and a small quantity of woollen carpets and handicraft products worth approximately Rs. 100,000. Germany agreed to remove import restrictions on India's exports of iron ore, manganese ore, mica, caustic magnesite, raw wool, coir yarn, bristles and hairs, hides and skins, leather and canvas, footwear, myrobalan, oilseeds and oils for technical purposes, stick lac and kiri lac, crude drugs, raw opium, tobacco and coffee. West Germany's exports to enjoy all facilities afforded to soft currency areas by India.	Easing of import controls on specified commodities.	

TRADE AGREEMENTS NEGOTIATED AND/OR FINALIZED DURING THE FIRST QUARTER, 1951 (*contd.*)

ECAFE COUNTRIES—EXTRA-REGIONAL COUNTRIES.

Contracting parties	Period valid	Value of trade and types of commodities	Type of agreement	Remarks
India-Hungary	1951	India's exports include cotton piecegoods (unprinted) cotton waste, raw hemp other than manila and sisal, coffee, tea, tobacco, spices, shellac, hides and skins (tanned and untanned), crepe sole rubber, medical herbs etc. Hungary's exports include diesel engines, tractors, machine tools, electric motors, transformers, switches, electric welding apparatus, telephone equipment, X-ray and electro medical apparatus, aniline dyes, acetic acid, pharmaceuticals etc.	Issuance of import licences by each country for specified commodities which are in short supply in the other.	Exchange of trade letters in New Delhi on 20 January 1951. The previous trade agreement expired on 14 July 1950. India would treat imports from Hungary on same footing as imports from other soft currency countries. Hungary to treat India as a trade agreement for reasonable quantities of various commodities in which India is interested.
India-Iraq	Until 31 December 1951	India's exports include cotton piecegoods, jute manufactures, tea, coffee, timber and plywood, spices, paint and varnishes, coir and coir manufactures, electrical materials, sports goods etc. Iraq's exports include all food items viz. wheat, rice, millet, barley and dates.	Issuance of licences.	Originally finalized in India in February 1951 but signed on 29 May. Each country to accord most-favoured-nation treatment.
India-Poland		India's exports include iron ore, manganese ore, mica, tea, hides and skins (permissible types), tobacco, opium, groundnut oil and linseed oil and castor oil etc. Poland's exports include raw zinc, zinc dust and zinc sheets, optical instruments, microscopes, power driven agricultural machinery, textile machinery, machine tools, transformers, porcelain sanitary ware, brushes, tinned food, steel fibres, cardboard, and paste board etc.	Issuance of licences.	Signed on 5 January 1951. The old agreement expired on 30 June 1950. India to treat import from Poland on same footing as imports from soft currency countries and Poland to treat India as a trade agreement country for reasonable quantities of certain specified commodities.
India-Sweden	1 January-31 December 1951	India's exports to benefit from the recent liberalization of imports by Sweden in respect of countries which are members of the Organization for European Economic Co-operation. Sweden's exports to benefit from India's treatment of its imports from Sweden on the same footing as any other country within the soft currency group.	Issuance of licences.	Trade letters exchanged on 28 February 1951. The old agreement expired on 31 December 1950.
India-USSR		India exports raw jute in exchange for USSR exports of 50,000 tons of wheat.	Barter	Offer made by USSR in March 1951.
Indonesia-Norway		Indonesia's exports to include rubber, tin, tobacco, spices and copra, Norway's exports machinery, cod liver oil, cellulose, paper, cardboard and fish hooks. It will also provide technical assistance for the development of Indonesian industry.	Issuance of licences.	Concluded probably in January 1951.
Indonesia-Sweden	1 March 1951-29 February 1952	Total value of trade 190 million kronor ($38 million). Indonesia's exports include rubber, copra and other tropical products, Sweden's exports include paper and chemical products, matches, ball-bearings, chemical and radio equipment, accumulators and machinery for wood and iron works.	Issuance of licences.	Signed on 5 March 1951 in Djakarta.
Indonesia-Switzerland	1951	Total value of trade 60 million Swiss francs, being 30 million Swiss francs on each side.	Issuance of licences.	Agreed some time in December 1951/January 1952. To be signed after ratification. This agreement will not affect the payments agreement between Switzerland and the Netherlands.
Pakistan-France	1951	Pakistan's exports of jute and cotton in exchange for France's exports of capital goods.	Issuance of licences.	Negotiation stage in January 1951 as the old agreement expired on 30 November 1950. Pakistan had however extended import licences to be valid until 31 December 1950 and 31 January 1951.
Pakistan-Hungary	January-31 December 1951	Pakistan's exports consisting of jute 4,000 metric tons, cotton 2,000 tons, tea 30 tons, cotton seed cake 3,000 tons, cotton seed 3,000 tons, wool 300 tons, wheat 20,000 tons, rice 7,000 tons, persian lamb skins 50,000 pieces, hides and skins, fish meal and sheep casings valued at £315,000. Hungary's exports valued at £1.26 million and consisting of such goods as cotton piecegoods (£400,000), jute manufactures (£145,000), earthenware and sanitary ware £35,000, machine tools £50,000, agricultural machines etc. £330,000, motor vans etc. £50,000, chemicals £100,000, drugs and medicines £75,000, telephone and telecommunication equipment £75,000.	Issuance of licences	Concluded in January 1951. Trade to take place between private traders and prices, types etc. to be decided by them. All payments to be settled in sterling.

ECAFE COUNTRIES—EXTRA-REGIONAL COUNTRIES—(Contd.)

Contracting parties	Period valid	Value of trade and types of commodities	Type of agreement	Remarks
Pakistan-Iraq				Signed on 31 March 1951.
Pakistan-Spain	22 January 1951-22 January 1951	Pakistan's exports consisting of cotton (mainly long and medium staple) 30,000 tons, cotton seeds 2,000 tons, cattle hides 750 tons, raw jute 5,000 tons (which includes the 1950/51 quota already announced). Spain's exports valued at £3,168,000 consisting of textiles £1,618,000; machinery and other metallic manufactures £1,365,000, chemicals and dyeing substances £40,000 and others including arms and ammunitions £145,000. Other exports from Spain of specified commodities in such categories as textiles, machinery and metallic manufactures, food and beverages, glazed tiles, crockery, leather goods, essential oils, tyres and tubes, paints, jute manufactures were to be placed on the list of O.G.L. imports of Pakistan.	Issuance of licences	The first agreement of its kind between the two countries. Concluded in January 1951. The two countries agreed to give each other most favoured nation treatment subject to certain restrictions.
Thailand-Japan	January-December 1951	Total trade $110 million. Thailand's exports include rice about 300,000 tons valued at $40 million, teak $1.2 million, castor oil $1 million, and salt $1 million. Japan's exports include railway materials $5 million, textiles $26 million.	Issuance of licences	Agreement of 1950 renewed in December 1950 to cover 1951. The present agreement represents a 22 per cent increase over the previous one. As before trade will be conducted on an open account basis.

II. ECAFE—INTRA-REGIONAL TRADE AGREEMENTS.

Burma-Ceylon	7 July 1951-30 June 1952	Burma to export rice to Ceylon. Quantity not stated but reported that agreement would "ensure a steady import of Burma rice into Ceylon".		Concluded in March 1951 in Rangoon. This new agreement was undertaken as the old one signed in August 1950 was due to expire on 30 June 1951.
China-India	1 January-31 March 1951	China (mainland) export 50,000 tons of rice at Rs. 21 a maund c.i.f. Indian port in exchange for India's export of 37,000 bales of Indian jute at Rs. 2,000 per ton (2½ bales) including export and other duties.	Barter	Concluded in December 1950/January 1951. The price of rice from Burma or Thailand c.i.f. Indian port is slightly higher, being Rs. 22 or 23 a maund.
China (Taiwan)-Thailand		Taiwan's exports sugar. Thailand's exports rice.		Negotiation stage in March 1951.
India-Indochina	1951	Viet-Nam's exports 30,000 tons of rice.	Rice contract	Negotiation stage to settle the terms of sales.
India-Indonesia	1 November 1950-30 June 1951	Total trade of Rs. 92.4 million (or Rupiah 74 million). India's exports Rs. 46.2 million, consisting of cotton piecegoods, knitted goods, agricultural machinery; cement, shellac, tobacco and jute goods etc. Indonesia's exports Rs. 46.2 million consisting of palm oil, copra, coconut oil, spices, including betel nuts, tin, tapioca, maize, teak wood, raw hides and skins.	Issuance of licences	Signed on 20 January 1951 in Djakarta. Original negotiations took place in September 1950. This is the first trade agreement between the two countries and a three-fold increase in the volume of trade between the two countries is envisaged as the actual trade between the two countries in 1949/50 was only Rs. 34 million.
India-Pakistan	26 February 1951-30 June 1952	Total value estimated at Rs. 2,500 million. India's exports estimated at Rs. 1,000 million consisting of coal 2.1 million tons, cement 100,000 tons, jute manufactures 62,500 tons, cotton yarn 15,000 bales, mill made cotton cloth 75,000 bales, handloom cloth 15,000 bales, paper 6,000 tons, iron and steel products 43,000 tons, hard coke 10,000 tons, soft coke 25,000 tons, pig iron 26,400 tons, mustard oil 20,000 tons and rubber tyres and tubes Rs. 2.5 million worth and any quantity of stone and ballast etc. Pakistan's exports estimated at Rs. 1,500 million consisting of raw jute 3.5 million bales, foodgrains of rice, wheat, gram etc. 775,000 tons (valued at Rs. 350 million), cow hides 1.25 million pieces, sheep skins 300,000 pieces and any quantity of raw cotton etc.	Issuance of licences	Negotiated in February 1951 in Pakistan. For purposes of deliveries of the goods, the period has been divided into two parts —the period up to the end of June 1951 and the period from 1 July 1951 to 30 June 1952. India will receive from Pakistan not less favourable treatment than that accorded to other sterling or soft currency areas.
India-Thailand		India exports gunny bags 16 million pieces. Thailand exports rice.		Negotiation stage.
Philippines-Thailand		Thailand exports rice 100,000 tons.	Rice contract	Approved in January 1951 by Thailand.

PROBLEMS OF NATIONAL INCOME ESTIMATION IN ECAFE COUNTRIES

Active interest has recently been shown in several countries of the region in the compilation of national income and related estimates. In addition to a few private studies official estimates have been prepared for Burma, Ceylon, China, India, Malaya, Pakistan, the Philippines and Thailand. Malaya and Ceylon have largely plantation economies, producing for distant markets. The remaining countries have primarily agricultural economies. Since agriculture is carried on as the principal means of subsistence, these are known as subsistence economies in contrast with plantation and industrial economies which are primarily market economies. In this article consideration is first given to some of the special characteristics of such subsistence economies and the problems which they present in the compilation of national income estimates. This is followed by a review of difficulties arising from the lack of data which is a general feature of the "less developed" economies of the region.

NATIONAL INCOME AND SOCIAL ACCOUNTING

The preparation of national income estimates may be approached in three different ways, each of which leads to an examination of a different aspect of the same aggregate. One approach is through an estimation of the net national product, which involves the ascertainment of the net values of production in different industries derived from the gross values of production. This necessitates a classification of the value of products on the basis of their industrial origin, and deduction of all business expenses paid to other industries. Secondly, the aggregate sought may be the sum of paid and accrued shares of the national product going to each factor of production. This "income" method measures the national product distributed to the factors of production as the paid and accrued income of individuals, companies and institutions. Finally, the aggregate may be obtained as the total net national expenditure. This method shows how the same aggregate was disposed of by those who received it. Much of it is spent on consumer goods—food, clothing and so forth—and the rest is net investment, that is, additions or improvements to national assets. Ideally, estimates should be compiled by each of the three methods, viz. national product, national income and national expenditure. As far as possible, these three should be independent estimates, thus providing a mutual check on their reliability. In practice, however, the aggregate for the countries of the region are usually obtained by one of the three methods, or by a partial combination of product and income methods.[1] Even consumer expenditure estimates, available only for India, are largely product estimates.[2] Decisions as to what approach is adopted, or to what extent the aggregate is sub-classified are usually conditioned more by the availability of statistics than by the usefulness of the particular approach for the purposes of economic analysis or administration.

In recent years it has been observed that national income studies which originated in attempts to measure the national aggregates of product, income and expenditure, would have a much more general interest and usefulness if they provided information classified for the important sectors of the economy, such as government, private enterprises, households, etc. and made essential distinctions between types of transactions, such as current and capital transactions. More than the building up, no matter how, of an estimate of the national aggregate, it would be useful to obtain a logically integrated framework of the entire structure of the economic system, parallel to, but not a copy of, the profit and loss accounts and balance sheets of large business firms prepared by accountants. An attempt to evolve a framework of such "social accounts" is made in the Report of the Sub-Committee of the Statistical Committee of Experts which was appointed in 1945 by the then League of Nations to enquire into the statistical measurement of national income.[3] The Sub-committee was composed primarily of experts in a number of countries who were directing the official computation of national income and related estimates. For lack of adequate material no articulated system of social accounts as advocated in the above report has been prepared for any country of the region, with one exception. The exception is the national accounts for the Netherlands Indies for 1938 where the network of the transactions between the government, Indonesian producers, non-Indonesian producers, banks, Indonesian

1. Examples of estimates by part product and part income method are the national income estimate of India prepared by V. K. R. V. Rao. **The National Income of British India, 1931/32.** Macmillan, and the official estimate for 1948/49, **First Report of the National Income Committee.** Department of Economic Affairs, Ministry of Finance, Government of India, April 1951.
2. R. C. Desai, **"Consumer Expenditure in India, 1931/32 to 1940/41," Journal of the Royal Statistical Society,** Part IV, 1948.
3. **Measurement of National Income and Construction of "Social Accounts.** Studies and Reports on Statistical Methods, No. 7, United Nations, Geneva.

consumers, non-Indonesian consumers and the rest of the world was calculated.[1] A preliminary attempt has also been made in India, where for lack of estimates, alphabetical symbols have been used to denote important aggregates such as current consumer expenditure, depreciation allowance, private savings and capital formation.[2]

DUALISTIC NATURE OF ASIAN ECONOMIES

The Asian economy is primarily a rural economy. Agriculture, the chief occupation, is pursued primarily as a means of subsistence. The cultivation of a piece of land is conceived, first, to serve the needs of the producer and his family. The crafts—blacksmithing, carpentry, pottery and so on—exist to cater to local needs. A large portion of the "economic" transactions in the village are barter transactions, governed by tradition. The productive units of the village are plots of soil and "households". The services of the peasant's wife and other members of the family are almost as important as his own. The surplus over the amount consumed in the village—usually a smaller portion of the produce, except where cash crops such as cotton, jute and oilseeds are cultivated to a significant extent—is sold for money to the town merchants through various systems of marketing.

Towns, on the other hand, are productive units and exchange centres, catering to a larger market outside their limits. The larger towns or cities in Asia display the characteristics of the western economies—factories, shopping centres, overcrowding,—while the smaller towns serve as intermediaries between larger cities and the rural areas. Their economy is a monetary economy. They depend for their supplies of food on the villages and in return supply manufactured products to the villages. The household is mostly a consumption unit, though some crafts and retail trading are pursued by the members. The towns and cities are also in contact with the outside world and serve as intermediaries for the wider sale of the surplus of the villages and procure for the villages imports consisting mainly of amenities for those who can afford them.

The national economies of Asia are thus more or less dualistic economies: village economies and town economies. It is not a differentiation merely between two sectors of an integrated economy, as would be the case if a similar distinction were made in the west. It is a distinction between two different economies, with limited points of contact between them. The need for making this distinction in national income estimates is imperative.

IMPUTATION OF VALUES: PRODUCTION APPROACH

The fact that rural economies are to a large extent non-monetary, makes any estimation in value terms an arbitrary one. Since the purchases and sales for money do not take place, money values are not available. Money values have, therefore, to be imputed.[3]

Ascertainment of money values imputed to that portion of the product which is not sold for money involves two operations: ascertaining the quantities so retained in the villages, and placing a value on them. In no country of Asia is accurate information available on the proportion of production not marketed. In India the marketing reports on various commodities, prepared by the Agricultural Marketing Adviser to the Government, give rather general information for such large units as the States. These estimates are often based merely on the average assessment of a number of private opinions collected. Not only does one fail to obtain an overall magnitude of such retention; but it is not feasible even to estimate the direction in which village retention would change with changes in economic conditions. A fall in prices may or may not reduce the supplies coming on to the market. A fall in output or prices, if it sufficiently impoverished the farmers, might "induce" them to part with more grains in order to obtain necessities like clothes. Alternatively, a rise in prices or output might make them content with their sales, and increase their own demand for food.

The above statements apply to that part of the village retention intended by producers for their own consumption. We cannot have a direct basis for the valuation of these quantities. The nearest concrete basis on which statistical data can be obtained is the net realised prices for the portion of the produce sold.

This method involves several assumptions. First, it seems that retention is a matter of choice and that if producers were not in a position to retain these crops they would have purchased them. It also assumes that such purchases would be effected at the ruling prices (net of selling costs) in the market. This implies that if all the produce was put on sale and each producer purchased his requirements on the market instead of the produce being retained, the same prices would have

1. **National Accounts for the Netherlands Indies in 1938**, Special Statistical Communications, August 1949, No. 4002, the Netherlands Central Bureau of Statistics. The classification differs from the recommendations by the United Nations.
2. **First Report of the National Income Committee, Op. Cit.**
3. For a fuller discussion of these problems see Desai, **op. cit.**, pp. 268-71.

been realized. On this assumption, imputed selling costs should be deducted from the market quotations, since these are assumed to have been saved by producers in the case of quantities retained by them.

This assumption is unwarranted especially for perishable commodities. For instance, it has been a common experience of national income statisticians that fluid milk fetches a higher price per unit of weight than an equivalent quantity sold as butter or cheese. The producer markets all the quantities he can in fluid form, the rest, being perishable, he converts into butter or cheese, or partly consumes himself. What values should one assign to his personal consumption: the values at which he sold the fluid milk, or the values which he would receive for its "by-products"? A similar situation arises in respect of eggs, fish, vegetables and fruits.

The operation of controlled prices may also give rise to a similar situation. In India whatever quantities of cane that sugar factories require are sold to them at a price controlled by the Government. Of the rest, the producers convert or sell for conversion to *gur* (raw unrefined sugar) a part, and consume the rest. The *gur* when sold on the market fetches a price much lower than if the cane were sold to factories. How is one to decide the value of the producers' own consumption of cane? Is it to be at the price at which the cane was sold to factories, or at the price realised for *gur* or somewhere between them or below both? Such situations call for personal judgments for whatever adjustments are made to the available statistics on the prices of actual sales. These adjustments are bound to be arbitrary and might involve a bias.

In addition to the quantities retained by producers themselves, the non-marketed proportion of the produce consists of payments in kind made to field labourers and village artisans, teachers, barbers and others for professional services. Here there can be two bases of valuation: the factor cost basis and the income basis. The factor cost basis would require these quantities to be valued at the supposed "cost" to the producers. This may, in accordance with what has been said above, be the net price at which the producer could have sold these quantities in the market, or valued at the supposed "income" of the recipient—the net price which the recipient would have to pay to buy these quantities on the market instead of receiving them as wages. The difference between the two is the distributive spread between the prices obtained by the producer and those charged in retail trade to the consumer. While conceptually significant, the difference between the two in a producing village might be small and perhaps neglected, although the problem of imputation still remains.

IMPUTATION OF VALUES: INCOME APPROACH

The problems described above arise in respect of the valuation of that portion of the national product of the villages which is not marketed. Valuation of national income also involves problems of imputation of values to incomes earned in the rural economy. We have noted above the difficulties encountered in estimating income when payments in kind are made. In addition to the provision of foodgrains, farm labourers may be provided with housing or meals. There are practical difficulties in the imputation of values to these payments, as no farm accounts are maintained and the peasant's production costs are not separated from the consumption expenditure of his family.

Another aspect of the problem is the valuation of domestic services. The villages consist of households, where the family members perform services which will have to be paid for in towns. The two types of services provided by the members of the family may be distinguished. The farmer's wife harvests, looks after the cattle and takes the output of fruits and vegetables to the village market. In addition she weaves, plaits, bakes pottery, gathers forest produce. All these services of a business type may be included by taking the "household" as the unit of accounting, and no serious problems arise. The problem arises only when income per occupied worker is to be established. What is generally not valued[1] is the domestic service of the housewife in cleaning and processing grains, laundry, sewing and darning of clothes—services which are performed free but for some of which corresponding households in the cities have to make payments. This kind of domestic service is also a problem encountered in the western economies but it is more significant in relation to the total national income in this region. Any line drawn between the 'economic' and 'non-economic' character of these services is bound to be arbitrary; the distinction and inclusion (after imputation of values) of the 'economic' services is necessary to secure a better comparison between rural and urban economies.

The compositeness and the diversity of occupations of the Asian household makes an industrial or occupational classification of national income difficult, when incomes are to be assessed for the households. Within a single household the members of the family may be

1. For instance, the United Nations Statistical Office disregards unpaid domestic services in their documents.

engaged in the raising of crops, animal husbandry including poultry farming, manufacture of dairy products, handloom weaving, rope making, the collection of manure and forest produce, and the marketing of vegetables, eggs, milk, etc. The census of India, in the information obtained on the occupational distribution of population, distinguished only the principal occupation and the principal subsidiary occupation of the head of the family and the number of his working dependents. The census of Ceylon enumerated only the principal occupation. This classification hardly does justice to the characteristic diversity of occupations of the Indian rural family. The census of the Philippines, on the other hand, lists all sources of family income.

Estimation of the aggregate national income by the factor share approach requires a classification of rewards for distinct types of economic functions—that is, a distinction ought to be made between rent, wages, interest and profits. The household economies of Asia, however, preclude such a classification. The peasant and his family members may work on their own farm: their wages are inseparable from profits. They may own their hut; they may lease out a part of their land in return for services during the harvesting period. Such a lack of differentiation in economic functioning makes it exceedingly difficult to obtain a factor share classification of national income. The same problem is encountered in western countries, in respect of unincorporated enterprises but it is more significant in ECAFE countries.

More than the difficulties of differentiating economic activities are those of placing a value on them. There is no concrete basis on which to proceed. Rural wages in areas where payments in kind are prevalent and employment is seasonal are not easily forthcoming. While arbitrary values might be imputed, a better estimation is provided by valuing the product. This is one of the reasons why most of the national income estimates in ECAFE countries and a large sector of the national income estimates of India are obtained on the product basis.

The diversity of occupations of the Asian households also presents difficulties of taking into account the various items of small earnings. The use of census data on occupations leaves out many minor streams flowing into the household incomes. This is one of the reasons why product estimates, where the product of each activity is separately estimated, come out higher than income estimates.[1]

1. This partly explains why Desai's estimate of consumer expenditure for 1931/32 based on the product method comes out higher than Rao's estimate of national income of India for the same year which was based partly on the income method.

INTRACTABILITY OF MATERIAL

The problems of imputation of values do not exhaust the problems of settling up accounts for rural economies. Nor are the problems entirely conceptual. The inadequacy of statistics concerning rural economies is indeed extreme. For these statistics, there are generally three sources: a few isolated village studies, official estimates of agricultural production and the information on occupational distribution covered in the periodic censuses.

The village surveys, if available, are usually very scattered over space and time. While intended to be illustrative, they can hardly provide a sample from which estimates can be framed. The village surveys in India, for example, are compiled on the inquiry method. Since single villages are examined, the interviewer is assumed to possess an intimate knowledge of the economy. The material for his study, however, is often intractable. The following account of the general situation in India is given by the National Income Committee and, in general, applies to all ECAFE countries.[2]

> In India, many producers have nothing but the remotest notion of either the quantity or the value of their output. In western countries, economic statistics are largely collected directly from the individuals and enterprises who are the active economic agents and have knowledge of the fact by virtue of their participation in economic activity. It becomes difficult to follow this practice in India because of the illiteracy of the population, the semi-subsistence character of their economic entity, and the general absence of the practice of keeping accounts either among producers or among consumers. Even if he could and did maintain accounts, the producer in India will find it hard put even to know the gross value of his output, let alone the net output; in the absence of accounts, we cannot even know, much less import information, on his income and expenditure. An element of guesswork, therefore, inevitably enters into the assessment of output, especially in the large sectors of the economy, which are dominated by the small producer on the household enterprise.

Production estimates of principal agricultural crops put out by many governments have generally provided the primary material for product estimates of the rural population. There are various limitations, however, which need to be taken into account. First, the statistics are not comprehensive. In India, for instance, no report on the acreage under cultivation is available for between one-fifth and one quarter of the area of the country. Secondly, while it is possible to obtain the production of the primary crops, no regular information is available on the products from the crops. Thus, it is possible to know the production of castor seed in India, but the production of castor oil is not estimated. Thirdly, the

2. First Report of the National Income Committee, pp. 12-13.

estimates of the primary crops which are available leave much to be desired. In general, they are derived on the formula:

Acreage under cultivation × normal yield × current yield as percentage of normal.

In India, the reliability of the acreage estimates depends on the reporting agency. In the areas under temporary settlement of revenue, the revenue agency is permanently located, and estimates are supposed to be fairly trustworthy. On the other hand, in permanently settled areas, where there is no regular revenue agency, the village policemen are responsible for the reporting of the acreage under different crops, and their estimates have proved to be unreliable. The normal yields are obtained by crop-cutting experiments over a period of years in fields which are selected as typical. A system of successive guesswork also comes into operation to estimate the current season as a proportion of the normal season. The preliminary guesses are made by the village agency; they are corrected by the circle and district agencies, and finally by the directors of the departments of agriculture in the States. They tend to be very much the product of subjective elements. In the Philippines, questionnaires are sent out to various agencies working in the rural areas. These are requested to state the percentage changes in cultivation compared with the previous year. The information is linked with the periodic economic censuses. Such estimation of agricultural production also tends to be very subjective.

Estimates of the product of other occupations in the rural areas are generally non-existent. Though occasional attempts have thrown light on some aspects, large parts of these rural economies continue unexplored.

The population censuses seek to provide information on the occupational distribution of the population. This source also suffers from several handicaps. First, the censuses are taken at periodic intervals, usually of ten years. Thus continuity of information necessary for annual estimates of national income is not available. Secondly, the censuses can enumerate only one or two occupations of the principal earner and his dependents, despite the diversity of occupations of the Asian household; usually they do not venture into detailed estimates of the income and expenditure patterns of households. Finally, the censuses may not estimate the extent of employment or unemployment. The employment of the estimated working population has to be guessed. In some cases for example in the censuses of India and Ceylon, there has been no attempt to distinguish between proprietors and wage earners, as all are listed under the same occupation. This distinction is made however, in the censuses of Thailand and the Philippines.

Even if the difficulties of ascertaining the quantities of agricultural and other rural products and the estimating of population actually employed in different occupations are overcome, appropriate data on prices and wages or earnings have still to be obtained before the aggregate product and the aggregate income of the rural economies can be estimated. The difficulties encountered in the estimation of wages paid in kind have been described above. Recently steps have been taken in India to overcome these difficulties, but the information obtained remains far from comprehensive. In the Philippines for lack of rural data, Manila prices are generally used to value the national product. This gives an erroneous estimate, and ought to be corrected.

BALANCE OF PAYMENTS OF THE VILLAGES

In addition to preparing the estimates separately for rural economies it is desirable to explore the points of contact between the rural and urban economies. This implies that the framework of national accounts should provide for a statement of the balance of payments of the villages.[1]

The receipts of the villages primarily consist of the value of sales of village products. This consists of the surplus above local consumption needs in respect of food crops and practically all commercial or cash crops such as cotton, jute, oilseeds, etc., livestock and handicraft products, including the cost of processing in the rural households and transportation to town handled by the villagers. In addition the villages receive remittances from their earnings made by village residents working in the urban areas. This is peculiar characteristic of the Asian economies. In Asia, unlike in the west, urban industry except in a few of the larger cities does not depend wholly for its labour supply on an urban proletariat that has left the country for ever and struck roots in the urban centres. The labour is still rooted in the country; when unemployed or after a few years of labour, many of the unskilled workers return to their villages. This applies even to a significant part of the middle class population of the towns. Many shopkeepers, teachers and government servants, on retirement, look forward to building a house for residence (if they have none) in the village for the remaining years of their life. The villages, therefore, receive capital transfers in addition to current earnings.

1. This would be useful in showing the flow of money income between the rural and urban areas especially during a period of industrialization.

The outgoings of the villages, on the other hand, are taxation (primarily land revenue of the local and/or central governments), rent payments to absentee landlords, purchases of products like clothing, refined sugar, kerosene, household utensils, gold etc. (either domestically produced or imported and in either case obtained through urban distributive channels), and expenditure on amenities when the villager visits the towns.

Adequate information, making it possible to compile such a balance of payments for the rural economy, is not available from any source. There have been a few attempts in village surveys to present this information. But the information obtained is not comprehensive, and the studies are too scattered over time and space to be useful for the compilation of an aggregate rural balance of payments.

COLLECTION OF DATA BY RANDOM SAMPLING

Because of the practical difficulties in taking a complete census of rural economies, India has recently made notable progress in the application of sampling methods to their investigation. The first application of these methods has been to the determination of agricultural yields. Criticism had long been voiced of the subjective methods by which estimates of agricultural output were framed. The Government of India, therefore, is at present engaged in evolving scientific estimates of agricultural yields.[1] Under the auspices of the Indian Statistical Institute and the Indian Council of Agricultural Research, crop acreage and yield are estimated by random sampling the procedure for obtaining unbiassed samples based on laws of chance. Rigid restrictions are imposed on the obtaining of samples, and on the cuttings to be taken from the selected plots, and strict accuracy in weighing is enforced. The crops so far covered are jute, rice and wheat. Some progress has also been made with respect to other crops. This is the first known experiment to evolve objective methods of obtaining estimates of crop production within defined limits of reliability over such large areas. It is expected that the successful implementation of these methods over the entire field of crop estimation will greatly assist in improving the accuracy of product estimates.

While there has been a general agreement that random sampling on cuttings gives better yield estimates than crop reporting by eye estimates there is some disagreement on the relative merits of complete enumeration versus sampling for the estimation of the area under cultivation. In Asian countries enumeration—annual or periodic—has to be made by local officials, covering small localities such as villages. The difficulties of obtaining reliable reports from such reporting were explored by the Sub-Commission on Statistical Sampling of the United Nations which concluded that "acreage returns obtained directly from farmers or collected by local officials or investigators appointed for the purpose should not be accepted without some system of independent checks operated by a separate agency such as the central statistical office of the country concerned."[2] This method has come to be known as complete enumeration controlled by sampling. The Sub-Commission proceeded as follows: "If detailed area figures for individual farmers are not required for administrative purposes, there appears to be little argument for instituting any form of complete enumeration. The Sub-Commission is of the opinion that the merits of complete enumeration are greatly exaggerated."

A second attempt to tackle the entire rural economy—this time a direct attempt to collect comprehensive data for national income work—is also planned in India. In January 1950 the Government of India proposed to undertake a nationwide multi-purpose sample survey which is to continue from year to year. The entire rural area of the Union of India (1.13 million square miles, excluding Kashmir and Jammu) will be covered in order to estimate the total production, income, expenditure and capital formation in the rural sector in terms of money values as well as of actual commodities and services to the extent possible. There are to be 1,800 sample villages selected from each population stratum with probability proportional to the area of the village (by locating points at random on maps) or with probability proportional to the population (when maps or area figures are not available). The 1,800 villages will be divided into two sub-groups of 1,200 and 600 villages. Each village will have 16 households selected at random with the restriction that eight are to be agricultural and eight non-agricultural in occupation. Two entirely different sets of forms will be used in the two sub-groups, thus providing interpenetrating samples for the comparison of results based on the two sub-groups.[3] Field operations had already started by the autumn of 1950.

The National Sample Survey does not directly aim at the compilation of a rural balance of payments; the

1. **Sample Surveys for the Estimation of Yield of Food Crops.** Indian Council of Agricultural Research, May 1950.

2. **Report to the Statistical Commission on the Third Session of the Sub-Commission on Statistical Sampling.** E/CN.3/83, 24 October, 1949, page 12.

3. For details of the organization, coverage and purposes of the Indian national sample survey see **The Indian National Sample Survey,** a paper prepared by P. C. Mahalanobis for the fourth session of the Sub-Commission on Statistical Sampling (E/CN.3/Sub 1/L.7, dated 11 September 1950).

information obtained might, however, make it possible to construct such statements.

The experience of India is a pointer to the great possibilities of utilizing scientific sampling for the purpose of national income estimation. This aspect was considered at its third session in September 1949, by the Sub-Commission on Sampling of the Statistical Commission of the United Nations. The Sub-Commission considered in detail the application of sampling methods for the measurement of national income and concluded: [1]

> Sampling methods may be particularly suitable in less developed countries to obtain information on the production and consumption of population groups living under conditions of a subsistence economy.
>
> Sampling methods may likewise be useful to obtain data for handicrafts and small scale industries usually omitted from or not adequately covered by censuses of production.

MEASUREMENT OF RURAL AND URBAN PRODUCT IN REAL TERMS

The need to evaluate separately the contribution of rural and urban economies to the national product requires attention to be given to the problems of securing their comparability. National product estimates as they are now compiled in value terms do not adequately fulfil this requirement, as the unit of money possesses different values in towns and villages. A bushel of wheat consumed by a farmer, for instance, is given a lower value than that consumed by a town labourer. Prices of foodgrains, housing and local handicraft products are often much lower in value than in towns, and so are incomes. Factory products, or imported goods obtained through the towns are, on the other hand, more expensive in the villages than in the towns. On the whole, estimates of national product or national income tend to represent lower money values for the rural than for the urban economy even for the same goods and services.

It is necessary to reconsider the desirability of adding up urban and rural money values to construct national income estimates without making any prior adjustments. The item of rent in a national income estimate for instance, is an unadjusted total of town rents and village rents—two entirely disparate units. This limits the usefulness of such estimates as an indicator of changes in living standards.

To obtain a comparable measure of the product or income in real terms an attempt should be made to construct a special prices index to compare and adjust the rural prices to the urban prices. National product should be calculated on the basis of such adjusted prices.

It might, however, be considered useful to retain factor costs as the basis of estimation. If this is done, the estimates should not be used to compare the incomes of the urban and rural economies directly. Instead, a special composite index of prices may be constructed and applied to the money value of incomes in the rural sector before the income estimates at factor cost are used to compare rural and urban real incomes. If such adjustment is not made, a comparison of per capita rural and urban incomes would be erroneous.[2]

NET GEOGRAPHICAL PRODUCT AND NET 'NATIONAL' PRODUCT

Having considered the problems arising from the desirability of preparing separate accounts for the rural and urban sectors, we may now turn attention to a few of the general problems of national income estimation. These problems are by no means confined to Asian economies, but deserve special consideration in view of the conditions prevailing in the region or in view of the paucity of statistical information.

There is first the need to distinguish between net geographical product and the product accruing to the nationals of the country concerned. Net geographical product is used to indicate the aggregate income originating in a country, irrespective of whether the providers of factors of production are residents or non-residents. Net 'national' product is the aggregate income ascribed to the residents of the country.

The definition of residents generally used for national income estimation corresponds to the one adopted by the International Monetary Fund for the construction of national balances of payments. The Fund defines 'residents' according to the principle of general 'centre of interest'. A citizen of a foreign country staying in the reporting country is considered as a resident of the latter if his centre of interest has been shifted there. Branches and subsidiaries of a foreign company are treated as residents of the country in which they operate, because they are considered an integral part of that country's economy. On the other hand,

1. **Report to the Statistical Commission on the Third Session of the Sub-Commission on Statistical Sampling**, page 8.

2. As made, for instance, by V. K. R. V. Rao for India op. cit:

agencies which act on account of principals abroad are considered non-residents.[1]

In general, such a definition of residents for ascertaining the national product is to be recommended. In adjusting net geographical product into net national product, we require incorporation of the statistics in the balance of payments accounts, to show transactions between residents and non-residents, and the use of identical definition is essential. In practice, however, many countries in the region do not strictly apply the Fund's definition in their estimation of the balance of payments. For example, Pakistan and the Philippines treat all persons residing within their territories, including members of foreign diplomatic missions, as residents.

In addition, some countries in Asia have a sizable proportion of their national product originating in industries owned and/or operated by non-nationals but residents as defined by the Fund. Such is the case with the branches or subsidiaries of firms with central offices in the foreign countries. In such cases it might be desirable to prepare separate estimates for such resident but non-national interests. The available national accounts for Indonesia make the distinction between Indonesian and non-Indonesian enterprises and consumers. The share of non-Indonesian enterprises, which may include other enterprises in addition to branches and subsidiaries, was upwards of 40 per cent of the national product in 1938.[2] Similar problems also occur in the estimation of the national product for Malaya, the Philippines and Thailand.

INDUSTRIAL CLASSIFICATION OF NATIONAL PRODUCT

A satisfactory classification of national product for the main industrial groups can be obtained if the estimates are framed on the basis of censuses of production. Few countries of the region take such a census.

First, it is not easy to apply to rural areas, with subsistence occupations, the requirements of a census of production. Sampling provides a better apparatus to measure the product of this sector. The census usually covers only the urban areas.

Secondly, a significant proportion of the economic activity even in the urban areas is undertaken by cottage and small scale industries. For this area of production, sampling rather than census taking would be a more suitable means.

In general the census effectively covers only large-scale organized industries, though an attempt has been made in the Philippines to deal with agriculture and handicrafts. The Indian census covers only manufacturing industries. In these industries only establishments which employ 20 or more workers are covered by the census. The lacunae in coverage can be seen from the fact that the second census for 1947 covers only 29 manufacturing industries out of a list of 63. Of the 7,000 establishments in these 29 industries, the census is confined to 5,643. To the lacunae in coverage are added the difficulties in obtaining returns. In the case of India, even though the statistics are obtained by compulsory legislation, 13.5 per cent of the firms failed to submit returns or sent incomplete reports.

This gives some idea of how small a sector of the population is covered by the censuses of production organized on western lines. The large area of production is dominated by small-scale enterprises, and estimates for this sector of production have to be framed by indirect methods—on the basis of raw material consumed, exports, or by assuming the number employed and their average daily, monthly or annual earnings.

While the censuses of production present data for an industrial classification, it is difficult to secure a proper classification for the rest of the sector. Where estimates are based on the occupational distribution of population, the difficulties are significant. A mechanic may belong either to a machine industry or to a textile industry. Recognizing this difficulty, the Population Commission of the United Nations has recommended that the economically active population be classified in the population censuses by industries, as well as by occupations.[3] This has been done in the 1948 Population Census of the Philippines.

In addition to the above, a major difficulty as pointed out earlier is the integration of household work with the different industries into which it could be classified.

TREATMENT OF INTEREST PAYMENTS

Conceptually it should be possible to distinguish between interest payments for three types of loans:

(a) Interest payments for loans incurred for productive purposes, such as digging wells, irrigation etc., should be included in the estimates of national income, while the assets created by these loans are rendering current economic service.

1. **Balance of Payments Manual**, International Monetary Fund, Washington 25, D.C., U.S.A., January 1950, pp. 1-2.

2. **National Accounts for the Netherlands Indies in 1938**, Op. cit.

3. See the reports of the third and fourth sessions documents E/805 and E/1313.

(b) Interest payments for loans incurred for consumption purposes ought to be excluded from national income and considered merely as transfer payments. These loans are assumed merely to give rise to financial claims on consumers.

(c) A peculiar characteristic of Asian economies is the interest payment on ancestral debt. If such debt is incurred for productive purposes and the assets created by the loans are rendering current services, the interest payments belong to category (a), and should be included in the national product. Alternatively, if the debt has left no productive counterpart in the form of productive assets, such debts partake of the character of wartime debts. Interest payments for these should likewise be treated as transfer payments. Broadly speaking, a commercial firm pays interest on assets, even after these assets have become worthless or disappeared, only if other sources are available to the borrower to continue interest payments. If such sources are not available the firm will go into liquidation and the interest payments will be discontinued. If therefore, no corresponding productive assets exist in the year of calculation, the interest is paid for the productive service of previous years, and it is less misleading to treat these interest payments as a transfer than to treat them like commercial interest payments. Interest payments on ancestral debt incurred for consumption expenditures should be treated as transfers in the same manner as interest payments on debts currently incurred for such purposes.

The fact that a significant part of the population in Asian economies carries large ancestral debts, and that the chronic poverty of the average resident in Asia makes him a constant borrower, lends particular emphasis to the above distinctions in the reckoning of interest payments in estimating the national product for the agricultural sector. In addition, when a farmer contracts a loan he often uses it partly for productive and partly for consumption use, or the purpose may change after he receives the loan. Even the co-operative credit societies cannot supervise its utilisation. As a matter of fact, a large part of his loans even for productive purposes, is obtained through moneylenders, for lack of an organized loan market. Consumption loans are invariably supplied by the moneylenders. These moneylenders often operate in the rural areas, and combine retail trading and other activities with moneylending. Often they charge exorbitant rates of interest, and where legislation against such rates is prevalent, the amount of calculated interest is already incorporated into the amount of loan for which the illiterate citizen puts on his thumb impression. No regular records are maintained; and very rarely does the moneylender register his income from moneylending for the purpose of income tax assessment. The total amount of debt, the use made of the debt, and the annual "burden" of interest payments remain, therefore, largely matters of conjecture. In such a setup any estimate of the breakdown of interest payments into transfers and economic payments becomes arbitrary in the extreme.

SAVINGS AND CAPITAL FORMATION

Most countries of the region are undertaking a certain degree of planned economic development. While the need for the estimation of money savings and capital formation has been felt, none of the countries has been able to prepare reasonably accurate estimates over a sufficiently long period of time.[1]

Savings in Asian economies are largely direct savings of individuals or families. Savings through insurance and private pension funds are made only by a very small sector of the population. Factory enterprises also cover a relatively small section; in India, for example, most of the enterprise savings are the same as individual or family savings, since small agricultural holdings and cottage industries characterise productive enterprises. The annual savings of the public authorities alone can be estimated with any degree of precision, but data on local governments are often not available in sufficient detail to enable such estimates to be made.

Aggregate savings have, therefore, to be obtained by estimating aggregate capital formation and net lending abroad. The identity of savings and capital formation plus net lending abroad supplies to the economy as a whole, not to separate sectors.

Capital formation in Asian enterprises is difficult to estimate directly. As records are not maintained for income tax or other purposes, private capital investments in land improvement, tube wells and irrigation cannot be directly estimated. Estimates can be made only for livestock growth and the gross value of agricultural implements turned out by iron and steel factories or imported from abroad. Buildings on farms, cattle sheds, etc. escape any registration. Similarly capital formation in cottage industries is not easily available. Attempts have recently been made in India to estimate capital formation in factory enterprises covered by the Census

1. For a study of the methods of measuring capital formation see **Statistics of Capital Formation** and its Technical Appendix **Definition and measurement of Capital Formation** (Document E/CN.3/129 dated 10 April 1951 presented to the sixth session of the United Nations Statistical Commission.)

of Manufacturing Industries and capital formation by Central and State Governments. Data on local governments are not so satisfactory.

Residential buildings constitute, however, one of the most significant items of capital formation in Asia, although very scanty information is available concerning them. Several municipalities have registration for building permits, for which adjustments are necessary for undercoverage, undervaluation, abandonments, non-reporting and delays in starting construction. In rural areas, not even building permits are required. Any attempt to measure building construction on the basis of costs also fails, as a large part of the costs are for materials locally produced in units too small to be registered by production censuses, and for labour. Even the occupational distribution obtained in the population censuses does not provide a reliable guide to ascertaining the wage earnings of masons, carpenters, etc. employed on building construction. In rural areas construction is undertaken or repairs done by farmers in their spare time. The construction industries undergo heavy cyclical fluctuations, and the numbers registered in the census may fail to give any indication of employment in the census year, much less for any other year. Finally, in many places building construction is seasonal in character, and the workers also find employment in other industries in the slack season.

There is also the difficulty of estimating changes in stocks. As in the case of retention for consumption, it is difficult to estimate the stockholding propensity of farmers in relation to changes in output or prices. The censuses of production might provide information, for their limited coverage, on the value of inventories held by factories in organized industries. The problems here are parallel to those in the western economies. But for the other sectors of production no estimation is possible, except for some commodities in foreign trade, like jute, cotton, tea, etc., where statistics of stock-holdings in ports and some of the production and distribution centres might be available.

Finally, there is the question of allocating depreciation of assets. Only vague information is available on the depreciation rates of farm implements, as there are no trustworthy estimates of their total value to which these rates could be applied. The estimates of other capital goods and buildings are also not available to provide a value criterion for the estimation of national capital formation. Even in the west, it has been found difficult to define capital consumption accurately and still more difficult to estimate it.

Failing any criterion of a depreciation rate applicable to national wealth, arbitrary percentage deductions have sometimes been made from gross national product to obtain net national product. The Philippines uses 10 per cent for such deduction, which appears to be rather high, as the ratio of capital to product is generally small in agricultural countries. Land itself is not assumed to deteriorate, and capital investments in land improvement have a long use life. The stock of capital goods in other industries is small. The estimate appears to err, therefore, on the side of overdeduction. In any case, depreciation does not (and should not be reckoned to) bear direct relation to the value of product, but to the stock of capital.

In view of all these difficulties, except for the pre-war estimates for Indonesia,[1] no estimates on savings and capital formation are available for Asian countries. The National Income Committee of India has refrained from making these estimates, and has used only symbols to denote savings and capital formation, in preparing the statements on national accounts.

ASSESSMENT OF RELIABILITY

The considerable element of conjecture present in any attempt at national income estimation in Asia necessitates a reliability assessment of the estimate. This would be facilitated if a detailed description of the methods of estimation and the sources of data were given.

Several attempts have recently been made to evolve methods of providing an indication of the accuracy of the estimates. One method is to place question marks or plus and minus signs after certain figures to indicate the rough nature of the estimation of a particular item and the probability of over or under-estimation of a related item due to over or under-estimation of a given item.[2] A more systematic method is to classify the various items under a few broad categories indicating the estimators' confidence in the reliability of the data.[3] If sampling methods were used over a large area of national income estimation, it should be possible to calculate sampling errors of the estimates. But most of the errors one comes across in national income esti-

1. **National Accounts for the Netherlands Indies in 1938, op. cit.**
2. This is the practice used for the national income estimate of Sweden. See **National Income Statistics, 1938-1948.** Statistical Office of the United Nations, pp. 150-159.
3. The Irish White Paper on National Income and Expenditure, 1938-1944 (Dublin 1946, p. 23) classified the estimates into four reliability categories, namely, firm figures, good estimates, rough estimates and conjectures. R. C. Desai in ("Consumer Expenditure in India", **op. cit.** changed the first two categories into good estimates and fair estimates for application to the estimation for India, on the assumption that there were hardly any firm figures for that country

mates are indefinite, and generally their evaluation is based on subjective assumptions indicative of the reliability of data rather than any precise knowledge of their error magnitude. Thus it is more appropriate to classify them qualitatively.

To convert the qualitative classification into quantitative measures requires the assignment of arbitrary percentage errors to each category.[1] After this is done and, if various correlations between the errors of each item are assumed, a further step may be taken by combining the errors of various items into a single figure, representing the error of the whole estimate. In one of the estimates for want of any possible precise correlation value, either perfect or zero correlation is assumed between the errors of each item. When two or more estimates were compiled from the same sources the correlation was assumed to be perfect. Alternatively, estimates from independent sources are treated as uncorrelated.[2]

While recognizing that any attempt to evaluate the accuracy of an estimate may easily be influenced by subjective judgment, attempts to develop means of indicating the reliability of the estimates are valuable. However, the more elaborate the method and the more precise it appears the more cautious should be the approach to the results. While restrictions may be placed on the choice at each step, the method remains subjective, and special care should be taken when such methods are applied to ECAFE countries, especially when a single error figure is to be derived for the whole estimate. To ascertain which one of the categories of classification the estimate of a particular item falls into must necessarily be a subjective process, and the assignment of quantitative values to each category can only be arbitrary. The assumption of either zero or unit correlation is an over-simplification. Even though the estimates of the individual items are not compiled from the same source, the figures of these items may be biassed and the chance of over and under-estimation may be different. This is true when an estimator is over-conservative and tends to under-estimate all items, and *vice versa*. The non-compensating nature of these errors generally results in an under-estimation of the error, especially for ECAFE countries. Moreover, in the estimation of the national income of ECAFE countries, some items are often entirely omitted because of the lack of data or the lack of knowledge on the part of the estimator.

Such an error arising from the omission of items, important though it is, is not included in the summary figures. All these factors limit the usefulness of a single summary figure for the evaluation of errors, and may even lead the readers to misinterpret the results unless qualifications are clearly stated.

For ECAFE countries, therefore, it is extremely important to publish a detailed description of the sources of data and methods of estimation, so that the users of these estimates may evaluate the nature of the estimate, the deviation from the usual definitions, and the accuracy of the estimate. In this connection, the publication of the national income estimate for China by the Academia Sinica[3] and that for India by the National Income Committee[4] furnish good examples.

INTERNATIONAL COMPARISON

The question has often been raised as to whether the relative poverty of the different countries of the ECAFE region can be gauged by a comparison of the estimates of their per capita incomes. Attempts have been made to do this by converting the per capita figures in national currencies to one national currency commonly recognized to be relatively more stable in value, such as the United States dollar.

A recent publication of the Statistical Office of the United Nations[5] is the product of an attempt to ascertain the per capita incomes of seventy countries in terms of the United States dollar of 1949 purchasing power. Of these seventy countries nine belong to the ECAFE region. The order of magnitude of per capita incomes so calculated is as below:

	Per capita national income per annum in U.S. dollars of 1949 purchasing power
Ceylon	67
India	57
Pakistan	51
Philippines	44
Burma	36
Thailand	36
Korea, south	35
China	27
Indonesia	25

1. For example, reliability categories are replaced by a classification based on probable percentage errors in "Consumers' Expenditures in the Netherlands", **Statistical and Econometric** Studies, Vol. 4, No. 3, Central Bureau of Statistics, The Hague, September 1949, pp. 99-143.

2. R. C. Desai, **op. cit.** However, some of the necessary qualifications and warnings described below have been referred to by the author to prevent any mistaken impression of accuracy.

3. **National Income** of China, 1933, Social Science Institute Academia Sinica, Series 25, published by Chung Hua Book Co., Shanghai, 1937 (in Chinese), vol. I, pp. 174, vol. II, pp. 296.

4. **First Report of the National Income Committee.**

5. **National and Per Capita Incomes of Seventy Countries, 1949,** Statistical Papers, Series E, No. 1, 6 October 1950.

The problems of such compilation are of two categories. The first is the problem of ascertaining the appropriate exchange rates. The controlled exchange rates in the post-war period are unsatisfactory for such conversion as they do not necessarily correspond to the purchasing power parities. The use of "free" rates is also inappropriate as it applies only to a restricted volume of transactions, except perhaps in Thailand. There is, therefore, the need to compare price indices based on pre-war years when there was relative freedom of international trade. The pre-war exchange rates do not of necessity reflect an equilibrium situation. Even if this period is adopted, wholesale price indices cannot be used, since they do not refer to the whole national product but only to a member of commodities appearing in wholesale trade, thus leaving out services. Cost of living indices are considered more suitable; but in most cases they refer only to industrial working classes, cover a small number of commodities, and are not corrected for changes in the post-war pattern of consumption as compared to the pre-war. The Statistical Office of the United Nations converted the figures in national currencies to the United States dollar on three bases: the pre-devaluation rate, the post-devaluation rate, and the adjusted pre-war rate. The last was obtained by applying the ratio of changes in the cost of living since before the war in the country concerned and in the United States, to the pre-war exchange rate, which was then multiplied by the United States price index for 1949. Of the nine countries mentioned above, the conversions for Ceylon and India were made according to the post-devaluation rate, and those for Burma, China, Indonesia, the Philippines and Thailand on the basis of adjusted pre-war exchange rates. The per capita income of south Korea is estimated arbitrarily at $35, and of Pakistan at 10 per cent below the figure for India, as expressed in United States dollars.

The above description brings out the arbitrary nature of the assumptions on which such conversions are made. There are grounds for believing that the over-valuation of the national currencies of India and Ceylon was not fully corrected by the devaluation of their currencies in relation to the United States dollar in September.[1] On the adjusted pre-war exchange rate basis the per capita income would be about 18 per cent lower.[2] For Ceylon the computation is not available. But this illustrates the wide discrepancies arising from the use of alternative assumptions. Moreover, the cost of living indices, in the primarily non-industrial countries of Asia, are not representative, as the basis adopted varies from country to country, and is not comparable. Owing to these difficulties of conversion, the per capita rates are not sufficiently reliable to compare the economies of Asia one with the other.

The second and more important objection arises from the difficulties of using the existing estimates for comparison purposes. None of the estimates is compiled on the standard basis. The available data and the relative care with which the estimates are prepared vary from country to country. The heroic assumptions required to reach these estimates give them a low degree of reliability, and it would be a rash venture to compare two sets of figures, each possessing an uncertain error.

Besides the apparent homogeneity manifested in the relative poverty of all the countries of the region, there are natural, institutional and other diversities which must be taken into account in comparing national income estimates. Thus, for instance, even after allowing for the differences in conversion methods, the per capita income of India is higher than that of Thailand. One of the reasons is the relatively lower urbanisation of Thailand. In Thailand, the non-market sector of production and services is relatively greater than in India. Secondly, national income can be viewed as a sum total of cost. Even on the assumption of free trade and a realistic exchange rate a pound of rice will have a higher value in India because it costs more to grow or to import than in Thailand. And rice is the most significant in the cost of living items of ECAFE countries. The value total of national income in Thailand may, therefore, be lower statistically than in India, even if the two countries had the same pattern and level of output and consumption. This is to say that international comparison of per capita national income may not correctly reflect the difference even in the quantity of physical production. The problems of compiling comparative price indices for different countries are however, far more complex than those for the different sectors within national economics and are generally not attempted. Finally, the distribution of income might be taken into account. Thailand perhaps has a more equal distribution of income than India.

If such are the difficulties in the comparison of per capita national incomes between the relatively less

1. "Devaluation, Price Movements and Changes in External Trade in ECAFE Countries", **Economic Bulletin for Asia and the Far East**, Volume 1, No. 2.

2. **National and Per Capita Incomes of Seventy Countries, 1949**, op. cit.

developed countries of Asia,[1] those between the Asian countries and the United States, for instance, should be considered unacceptable. For in the first place, the composition of the national product of an under-developed country in which primitive farming and household or small-scale handicrafts predominate differs so strikingly from the nature of the output of a highly industrialized country that it becomes almost meaningless to attempt to make precise comparisons. As the differences become less extreme, comparisons become more valid; the most significant comparisons are generally those among very similar countries. In the second place, owing to the secondary importance of the market economy in many under-developed countries, there is always the danger that an important fraction of the output may be overlooked in compiling statistics of national income. There may, therefore, be a tendency for the figures for these countries to be on the low or conservative side.[2]

1. Although, as has been indicated above, comparisons of the absolute national income figures of different countries are subject to many limitations, it might be more legitimate and useful to compare the rates of change in the national income of different countries, especially among those countries which have reached a similar stage of economic development. Such comparisons may help to show the progress results of national economic development plans in these countries.

2. **National and Per Capita Incomes of Seventy Countries, 1949, op. cit.**

A NOTE ON COTTAGE INDUSTRIES IN THE ECAFE REGION

In formulating their plans for industrial development the countries of Asia and the Far East are paying increasing attention to cottage and small-scale industries. Such industries provide a much larger part of the industrial employment in the region than do large-scale enterprises. Exact figures are not available, but it has been estimated that in 1933 approximately 10 million handicraft workers were responsible for 78 per cent of total industrial output in China, while one million factory workers produced the balance. The census figures for India in 1931 show that there were 6,141,000 persons engaged in cottage industries, as against 1,482,000 in large-scale industries.[1] The most important of the cottage industries is the making of textiles, which is estimated to give full-time employment to some two-and-a-half million workers in India and correspondingly large numbers in other countries of the region. The volume of production in these industries, information on which is even scantier than on the amount of employment that they provide, must be relatively much less, but it is clear that they provide a much greater part of the locally-produced industrial goods than do factory industries in almost all countries of the region.

Cheap imports from the countries of the West and from Japan, as well as the growth of large-scale enterprise within these countries themselves, the most important examples being the cotton mills of India and China, have adversely affected the position of small-scale industries. But the latter are, as can be seen from what is said above, very far from being submerged under the competition of large-scale industry and undoubtedly will remain a very important factor in the industrial production of the region for a long time to come.

As the resources available for industrial expansion are not unlimited, governments which are able and desire to direct the application of such resources, are faced with a choice as to how much of them should be devoted to the development of large-scale units and how much should be used for the preservation and development of small-scale industry. The problem is highly complex and, in dealing with it, governments are likely to be influenced by other than purely economic considerations. They are likely to be concerned, among other things, with the volume of employment, the raising of the standard of living in rural, areas, and other considerations of a social rather than economic character.

At the present time most of the governments of the region are inadequately equipped to give the aid and guidance in this field which are now generally considered desirable. In April 1951 a Working Party on Cottage and Small-Scale Industries of the Economic Commission for Asia and the Far East met in Bangkok to explore the technical problems involved in extending government help to such industries. It was concerned with such matters as the nature of the governmental agencies required to deal with the problems involved, the definition and classification of cottage and small-scale industries, the collection of the data required for the formulation of adequate government policies, and the types of service which governments might provide in the fields of education, finance, marketing and research. The purpose of this note is to give an indication of the nature of these problems.

Most countries in the region have a department within the particular ministry concerned with industrial development whose function it is to deal with cottage and small-scale industries. Though such bureaux are a necessary part of the governmental machinery it has been found desirable in some countries to supplement them by other bodies. Examples of this are the All-India Cottage Industries Board established in 1948 and the Pakistan Central Advisory Committee on Cottage Industries established in 1950. A demand for a similar body has arisen in Ceylon and the Government is reported to have decided on the establishment of a Cottage Industries Corporation. In some cases, special bodies have been constituted for particular industries. The advantage in setting up such *ad hoc* bodies is that they may be able to establish more direct contacts with the industries with which they are concerned, obtain a better understanding of the difficulties which the industries encounter and the remedies for them, and perhaps have more influence on the making of policy.

The effectiveness of these various governmental bodies is limited by the lack of organization within the industries themselves. As a consequence they lack spokesmen who can make representations to governments on their behalf. Attempts have been made to encourage the establishment of associations of a co-operative nature but so far such organizations are few and cover only a fraction of the workers in small-scale industry.

1. Handicrafts and Small-Scale Industries in Asian Countries, International Labour Review, December 1950.

For administrative and statistical purposes it is necessary to define cottage and small-scale industries and this is not a simple task. The kind of definition adopted will naturally depend on the purpose for which it is required. If the purpose is primarily to protect workers in large-scale industry and at the same time to avoid the application to small-scale enterprises of inappropriate or unduly burdensome restrictions, the definition is usually by number of workers employed in a particular establishment and the amount of machinery used, or a combination of the two. Such definitions may be satisfactory up to a point from the administrative point of view to serve the more positive purpose of providing assistance to small-scale industries, but they need to be supplemented by classifications according to other criteria, such as the nature of the material used, e.g. textile fibres, metals, wood, leather; or according to the kind of demand they satisfy, e.g. food, clothing, housing and so forth. It may also be useful to classify small-scale industries according to whether they produce directly for the market or whether they produce articles for use by large-scale industries, which is a very common situation in Japan. The purposes for which such classifications may be required included the establishment of associations, the collection of information for the formulation of policies, and the giving of assistance by governments.

Some countries in the region are taking steps to gather more information about cottage and small-scale industries with a view to drawing up more concrete programmes for their development. But the amount of data at present available is entirely inadequate for planning purposes. The ECAFE Working Party referred to above made a number of practical suggestions for the taking of surveys so that the essential information may be collected.

What has been said so far refers only to the means of assessing the problems involved and to the organization which may be required to deal with them. The real task that governments face, however, if any widespread improvement in the productivity of cottage industries is to be brought about, is to effect technical and structural changes which must involve the expenditure of a fair amount of resources in money and technical skill over a long period. Governments can assist in three ways, viz. by providing facilities for training in new methods of production, by assisting small-scale industries to obtain the necessary finance for the purchase of new equipment, and by helping to assure an adequate supply of raw materials and better marketing facilities. It is also necessary that these industries, if they are to progress, should have access to cheap sources of power, as has been the case in Japan, and the plans for development of electricity production are of great importance in this connection.

Training facilities already exist in some countries of the region but they are relatively few and their influence has not been great. Among the more important training institutions in India are the Central Weaving Institute in Benares, the Central Textile Institute in Kanpur, the Central Wood Working Institute in Bareilly, the Central Coir Institute in Beypore, and the Leather Institute in Madras. In Burma there is a training centre known as Saunder's Weaving Institute, Ceylon has a Central Research Centre, and Indonesia has the Batik Experimental Station at Bandung. Such institutions are important but their influence has been reduced by the fact that trainees often do not return to their villages, and if they do they are often unable to apply their knowledge effectively because of the lack of funds with which to buy improved equipment. Thus, not only is there a need for a large expansion of training facilities but it is also desirable that there should be guidance after training to assure that the training received is properly used, as well as government assistance to assure that lack of equipment is not an obstacle.

It appears that much could be done in some directions by comparatively minor changes in existing equipment. In India, for example, the majority of the hand-looms are still equipped with throw shuttles, though fly shuttles, which could be substituted at small cost, would, it is estimated, add at least 30 per cent to operating efficiency and output could be doubled by the addition of a few other inexpensive improvements which could be manufactured locally. The failure to introduce such improvements is due in part to ignorance and in part to the fact that the individual workers often live so near the subsistence level that they cannot afford even the small expenditure involved in these minor changes.

In the field of technical improvements, as well as in other directions, co-operative institutions could be of great value. Co-operative societies have in fact achieved some success in the introduction of technical improvements in Burma, India and Pakistan. They can also promote a certain degree of sptcialization, with its advantages in economy of time and in improving the skill of the worker. In fact it is necessary, or at least highly desirable, that there should be an extension of specialization if full benefit is to be derived from improvements in equipment.

Better training and improved techniques, however, will not by themselves improve the position of the worker in small-scale industry or even necessarily increase substantially the total volume of production. In some cases difficulties may arise in providing adequate quantities of raw materials. A case in point is the shortage of cotton yarn which exists at the present time. But more important is the matter of finding outlets for the products of small-scale industry. Governments also have an important function to perform in this field. They cannot only help to assure a sufficient flow of materials to small-scale industry but they can do much to aid in finding markets, particularly for the characteristic products of small-scale industry. Examples of what can be done in this way are to be found in the exhibitions of handicrafts organized by the Governments of India and of Pakistan, as well as the steps which have been taken by various governments to control the quality of the goods offered for sale, such as laying down specifications for the raw materials used and for the finished products, and the inspection and stamping of goods before they are marketed. In this sphere also the further development of co-operatives could be of great assistance.

Sufficient has been said to show that an improvement in the position and an increase in productivity of the cottage and small-scale industries of the region will demand a considerable effort over a long period and that it will probably be necessary for governments to devote sizable funds for this purpose if any significant results are to be achieved. External aid may be expected to play an important role in the process. Already the United Nations, through its technical assistance programme and the efforts of some of its specialized agencies, has taken certain steps to assist governments in the region to improve the position of cottage and small-scale industries. Nor have such industries been neglected in the development programmes drawn up under the Colombo Plan. Aid to small-scale industries is also beginning to figure among the projects submitted by some of the governments of the region for consideration by the United States Economic Co-operation Administration.

ASIAN ECONOMIC STATISTICS

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Symbols Employed

The following symbols have been used throughout this appendix:

. . denotes not available; — denotes nil or negligible.

I, II, III and IV for quarters of years. Figures in italics are provisional.

Rs. = rupees (Burma, Ceylon, India and Pakistan).

HK$ = Hong Kong dollar.

R. = rupiah (Indonesia).

Y. = yen (Japan).

W. = won (Republic of Korea).

M$ = Malayan dollar (Malaya and British Borneo, embracing North Borneo, Brunei, Sarawak, Federation of Malaya and Singapore).

P. = peso (the Philippines).

Pr. = piastre (Indochina).

The term Malaya includes the Federation of Malaya and Singapore.

Unless otherwise stated, the standard unit of weight used throughout is the metric ton.

Sources

To ensure comparability, data compiled by the United Nations Statistical Office have been taken as basic material wherever possible; material supplied by governments, publications of governments, the United Nations Organization and its specialized agencies and International Commodity Study Groups have been used as additional sources.

I. PRODUCTION OF SELECTED COMMODITIES

(Monthly averages in thousand tons)

	1938	1947	1948	1949	1950	1950				1951			
						I	II	III	IV	I	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.
COAL													
India a	2,400	2,540	2,525	2,664	2,709	2,852	2,663	2,612	2,709	2,964	2,955	2,935	3,003
Indochina	195	21	30	31	42	36	36	35	59	48	58	24	62
Indonesia	121	19	45	55	67	64	68	69	65	75	75	72	78
Korea, south	19	39	67	89	..	95	95	..	..	..	..	.	.
Malaya	40	19	32	33	35	37	33	36	34	32	33	26	35
Pakistan b	—	13p	20	28	37	45	39	28	37	46	44	44	51
Japan	3,484*	2,270	2,822	3,172	3,205	2,957	3,235	3,165	3,464	3,247	3,304	2,601	3,835
ELECTRICITY (mil. kwh)													
Burma	—	1	2	2	..	2	2	3	..	..	.	..	..
Ceylon	3	5	5	6	7	6	6	7	7	..	..	..	..
Hong Kong	..	9	13	18	24	21	24	26	27	28	29	27	27
India a	211	345	381	410	425	403	422	426	450	462	474	437	474
Korea c	225	23	41	55	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Pakistan	—	10p	11	14	14	10	14	15	15	..	..	.	..
Philippines d	12	..	30	35	38	37	37	39	40	39	41	37	40
Thailand	3r	3q	4	4	4	4	4	4	5	..	..	..	..
Japan	2,062*	2,450	2,644	3,001	3,236	3,055	3,260	3,073	3,554	3,462	3,540	3,114	3,731
PETROLEUM, CRUDE													
Brunei	59	144	224	280	..	295	327	369	..	..	.	..	..
Indonesia	616	93	361	494	535	477	553	582	526	600	627	575	599
Pakistan	—	3s	5	10	14	12	15	15	14	14	15	14	13
Sarawak	17	2	4	5	..	5	5	5	..	.	..	..	..
Japan	29*	15	14	17	25	22	24	26	27	27	26	25	29
IRON ORE													
Hong Kong	..	—	—	5	14	12	18	15	13	13	16	10	14
India a	232	212	193	238	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Malaya	137	0.1	0.1	0.7	42	22	40	54	52	38	32	45	37
Philippines	77	..	181	31	51	52	30	63	57	47	37	32	73
Japan	52*	41	46	63	69	56	69	79	69	56	47	51	70
PIG IRON & FERRO-ALLOYS													
India e	131	122	124	136	142	145	131	139	155	146	151	126	160
Japan	173*	31	70	134	192	152	200	197	217	221	217	201	245
STEEL INGOTS & CASTINGS													
India	82	106	106	115	122	120	112	124	130	124	133	113	126
Japan	435*	78	143	259	404	339	398	404	474	493	487	444	547
FINISHED STEEL													
India	59	76	72	79	85	82	80	88	90	89	90	87	91
Japan	379*	54	105	185	289	245	278	273	362	415	389	393	464
TIN IN CONCENTRATES (tons)													
Burma	419	152	97	151	*142*	132	153	*142*	*142*	*142*	*142*	*142*	*142*
China	906*	364	406	*356*	*305*	*305*	*305*	*305*	*305*	*305*	*305*	*305*	*305*
Indochina	135	—	3	*5*	*15*	*15*	*15*	*15*	*15*	*15*	*15*	*15*	*15*
Indonesia	2,517	1,349	2,592	2,452	2,718	2,541	2,782	2,757	2,762	2,526	2,372	2,236	2,968
Malaya	3,673	2,288	3,795	4,649	4,872	4,833	4,970	4,883	4,800	4,672	5,055	4,068	4,893
Thailand	1,255	119	359	662	873	754	822	967	967	*955*	*955*	*955*	*955*
Japan	..	9	10	*25*	*33*	*19*	*47*	*38*	*34*	*41*	*41*	*41*	*41*
TIN METAL (tons)													
Malaya	5,397	2,482	4,209	5,312	5,821	5,698	5,733	6,252	5,633	5,482	5,915	4,205	6,325
NATURAL RUBBER g													
British Borneo h	2.4	4.4	5.2	5.1	7.0	6.6	6.6	7.6	7.0	5.3	6.2	5.2	4.4
Burma h	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.7	0.8	1.0	1.0	0.3	0.9	1.6	1.5	2.3	1.0
Ceylon	4	8	8	8	10	7	10	10	12	9	10	8	8
India	1.3	1.4	1.3	1.3	1.3	0.8	1.3	1.1	2.0	0.8	1.3	0.3	0.9
Indochina	5.1	3.2	3.7	3.6	4.0	2.8	3.3	4.4	5.9	2.6	4.9	0.8	2.1
Indonesia	27.0	23.5	36.6	36.5	58.2	38.9	60.7	66.0	67.2	66.7	70.5	60.0	69.6
Malaya	30.4	54.7	59.1	56.9	58.8	54.8	54.4	63.1	66.6	55.6	57.1	49.9	59.7
Thailand h	3.5	4.4	8.1	8.0	9.5	8.1	9.9	11.0	9.0	10.1	9.6	10.2	10.4
CEMENT													
Hong Kong	..	2.9	4.4	4.9	5.7	7.6	4.7	4.2	6.2	6.5	5.1	7.4	7.1
India a	119	147	131	178	221	221	207	220	237	247	248	230	263
Indochina	22.2	3.4	8.1	12.8	12.0	9.8	11.5	10.2	16.5	15.0	17.8	11.3	15.8
Korea c	53	1	1	2	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Philippines	13.9	11.2	10.0	17.1	22.1	19.8	24.8	21.5	22.3	*19.1*	*16.5*	*18.1*	*22.6*
Thailand	9.7r	4.9	6.9	10.6	13.8	11.7	13.3	14.6	15.5	18.9	17.1	17.7	21.8
Japan	465	103	154	273	372	275	337	372	502	457	412	445	513
COTTON YARN													
Hong Kong	..	..	..	0.9	..	1.6	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
India a	48.7	49.8	54.3	51.4	44.6	47.1	45.5	42.0	43.9	46.4	48.5	44.0	46.7
Korea, south	..	0.5	0.5	1.1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Japan i	54.5*	10.2	10.4	13.1	19.9	15.6	18.5	20.6	24.8	24.5	23.5	25.3	24.9
COTTON FABRICS (million metres)													
Ceylon (million sq. metres)	0.59	0.50	0.54	0.56	0.52	0.56	0.52	0.46	0.55	..	..	..	..
India a	328	287	337	290	280	282	299	263	275	297	310	282	299
Korea c	11.44	2.33	2.14	4.85	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	.	..
Philippines	..	0.53	0.65	0.36	0.73	0.61	0.75	0.81	0.76	..	0.78	0.80	..
Japan i (million sq. metres)	243.6*	46.1	64.4	68.6	107.4	93.2	106.0	107.6	123.0	128.7	124.5	129.6	132.1

I. PRODUCTION OF SELECTED COMMODITIES (*Contd.*)

(Monthly averages in thousand tons)

	1938	1947	1948	1949	1950	1950				1951			
						I	II	III	IV	I	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.
JUTE MANUFACTURES													
India j	107.2	89.0	92.0	78.1	70.8	72.8	63.8	74.4	72.2	68.3	79.6	72.5	52.8
COCONUT OIL													
Malaya	..	8.15	7.88	7.70	7.66	6.74	7.42	7.42	9.06	6.74	7.04	6.15	7.02
PALM OIL													
Malaya	4.32	3.31	3 83	4 28	4.50	4 22	4.60	4.41	4.78	3.86	4.13	3.57	3.88
SOAP													
India	..	6.77	10.16	6.01	6.16	5.45	5.89	6.85	6.44	6.58	6.74	6.38	6.60
Korea, south	..	..	..	0.42	..	..	..	.	..	..	..	..	..
Malaya	..	2.47	1.92	1.67	1.42	1.25	1.34	1.60	1.49	0.92	1.76	0.45	0.54
Japan	16.14	0.45	1.16	2.12	7.51	4.58	7.16	8.52	9.79	13.92	10.80	14.53	16.44
PAPER													
India (including paper products)	49.28	7.88	8.29	8.74	9.22	8.76	9.14	9.50	9.48	10 50	10.17	10.14	11.18
Japan	88.12*	23.62	35.23	52.15	73.41	65.39	70.76	71.91	82.59	89.26	80.50	91.80	95.50
OTHER CHEMICALS													
India													
Sulphuric acid a	2.05r	5.08	6.77	8.42	*8.55*	7.79	8.46	*9.03*	*8.92*	*7.13*	*7.16*	*7.11*	*7.11*
Superphosphates	..	4.23	1.81	3.96	4.44	2.79	3.91	4.68	6.37	3.94	4.34	3.33	4.14
Soda ash	..	1.15	2.47	1.52	3.71	3.88	3.87	3.96	3.13	4.17	4.39	3.82	4.31
Caustic soda	..	0.28	0.37	0.53	0.92	0.86	0.91	0.98	0.92	*1.04*	1.04	0.99	*1.09*
Liquid chlorine	..	0.14	0.15	0.22	0.34	0.34	0.26	0.38	0.37	*0.40*	0.42	0.39	*0.41*
Bleaching powder	..	0.22	0.24	0.21	0.28	0.32	0.27	0.30	0.23	*0.40*	0.44	0.35	*0.41*
Power alcohol (mil. litres)	..	0.86	1.43	1.60	1.70	2.12	1.59	1.40	1.70	2.47	2.70	2.41	2.30
Industrial alcohol (mil. litres)	..	1.82	1.11	1.13	1.86	1.78	1.77	1.74	2.14	2.37	1.68	2.50	2.93
Japan													
Sulphuric acid k	240.9*	123.3	162.1	215.2	270.7	242.9	275.0	270.8	294.3	300.5	290.6	283.3	327.7
Ammonium sulphate l	72.9*	60.1	78.8	102-7	130.8	112.7	145.8	128.0	136.9	133.2	129.3	119.5	150.9
Calcium cyanamide l	17.9*	14.6	17.1	29.1	38.1	29.6	44.8	36.9	40.9	38.2	38.7	35.0	40.8
Calcium superphosphate m	119.8*	59.1	79.5	96.7	117.3	123.5	119.5	100.2	126.1	128.7	129.2	128.0	129.0
Soda ash (finished)	19.4r*	3.2	6.3	10.3	13.8	11.7	11.8	13.2	18.4	17.3	14.8	16.3	20.9
Caustic soda	24.9r*	3.6	9.0	12.1	16.2	12.2	14.3	17.2	21.1	22.9	22.4	21.0	25.3
Liquid chlorine	0.8r*	0.3	0.5	6.9	1.4	1.1	1.4	1.5	1.8	1.8	1.8	1.6	2.0
Bleaching powder	5.6r*	1.1	2.3	3.5	4.2	3.9	3.8	3.8	5.2	5.7	5.7	5.3	6.0
Dyestuffs	1.59*	0.23	0.44	0.55	0.72	0.56	0.59	0.66	1.19	1.30	1.20	1.31	1.39
Methyl alcohol	0.36*	0.36	0.63	0.92	1.84	1 44	1.46	1.73	2.74	3.19	3.21	2.90	3.47
Ethyl alcohol (mil. litres)	0.51*	1.58	2.41	2.15	1.96	2.06	2.69	1.85	1.22	2.37	2.55	2.06	2.51
MACHINERY PRODUCTS													
India													
Diesel engines (Units)	..	57	85	173	383	294	356	389	494	607	606	635	581
Electric motors (1000 h.p.)	..	3.17	5.00	5.67	6.82	4.69	6.41	7.36	8.80	10.30	10.23	10.31	10.36
Machine tools (1000 Rs.)	..	382	456	394	222	187	197	134	368	426	163	376	740
Sewing machines (Thousands)	..	0.49	1.67	2.09	2.57	2.35	2.65	2.79	2.51	3.04	2.90	2.87	3.35
Bicycles n (Thousands)	..	4.07	5.40	7.33	8.67	8.55	7.59	7.76	10.77	8.76	6.03	7.18	7.06
Electric transformers (1000 kva)	..	2.67	6.83	9.06	14 33	13.19	14.82	15.29	14.00	15.51	11.52	15.90	19.11
Electric lamps (Thousands	..	635	771	1,137	1,192	1,249	1,207	1,182	1,131	1,150	1,334	1,273	843
Electric fans (Thousands)	.	13.33	15.00	*14.92*	*16.13*	16.99	18.68	15.83	*13.03*	*18.90*	*19.06*	*18.50*	*19.26*
Insulators, l. t. (Thousands)	..	119	209	187	107	215	75	73	63	128	123	149	112
Insulators, h. t. (Thousands)	..	6.18	7.49	11.40	14.49	14.51	10.56	15.76	17.12	12.15	14.75	9.01	12.68
Motor car batteries (Thousands)	..	5.84	9.17	8.92	*15.59*	15.42	16.23	17.22	*13.50*	*17.71*	16.56	17.04	*19.54*
Japan													
Railway locomotives (Units)	28*	14	4	10	10	6	8	15	11	—	—	—	1
Railway freight cars (Units)	406*	72	367	258	186	79	68	250	345	128	39	145	199
Industrial locomotives (Units)	37‡	40	42	36	35	17	32	44	46	35	34	38	33
Industrial freight cars (Units)	592*	698	1,612	804	752	534	761	914	798	522	303	652	611
Motor vehicles (Units)	2,987†	1,850	3,917	5,538	6,265	5,311	5,347	6,484	7,917	8,506	7,780	8,265	9,472
Vessels (gross)	..	9.66	15.46	14.64	19.67	7.03	11.04	8.06	52.57	51.35	29.31	49 64	76.11
Diesel & other internal combustion engines (Units)	..	2,894	6,332	8,859	8,297	8,510	7,423	7,814	9,439	10,468	8,273	10,803	12,328
Ring spinning frames (Units)	..	..	..	153	182	122	131	181	296	437	362	449	500
Looms (Units)	..	990	3,070	3,390	2,044	1,405	1,638	2,684	2,450	3,077	2,548	3,057	3,625
Power transmission equipment	..	0.3	0.6	1.2	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.3	1.5	1.4	1.3	1.9
Pumps	..	1.2	1.2	1.2	0.9	0.8	0.8	0.8	1.0	1.0	0.9	1.1	1.1
Cranes, derricks, hoists & winches	..	1.2	1.4	1.7	2.1	1.8	2.3	1.8	2.5	2.8	2.5	2.8	3.0
Mining & excavating machinery	..	1.1	2.2	2.6	1.6	1.7	1.4	1.7	1.8	1.5	1.0	1.9	1.6
Iron & steel works & coke oven plant equipment	..	1.9	3.1	5.2	5.9	5.2	6.1	4.1	8.3	10.2	8 6	8.8	13.2
Chemical industry machinery & equipment	..	2.7	2.2	3.5	4.5	3.7	4.6	4.6	4 9	4.8	4.8	4.6	5.0
Pulp & paper industry machinery	..	0.1	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.5	0.7	0.8	0.7	1.0	0.8
Food products machinery	..	0.6	0.5	1.0	0.8	0 8	1.0	0.7	0.7	0.9	0.7	1.1	1.0

a Including Pakistan territory up to July 1947.
b Including lignite.
c Beginning 1946, South Korea only.
d Manila.
e Series includes direct castings, except for 1938.
g Including latex.
h Net exports.
i Including mixed yarn or fabrics predominantly of cotton.
j Beginning 1949, data refer to the output of member mills of Indian Jute Mills Association.
k Converted to 50° Be.
l Converted to 20 per cent N2 content.
m Converted to 16 per cent phosphorous pentoxide content.
n With the exception of 1950, data include, in addition to complete bicycles, spare parts and accessories expressed in terms of complete cycles.
p August-December.
q Beginning 1946, Bangkok only.
r Annual figures, twelve months beginning 1 April of the year stated.
s September-December.
t December only.
* 1936. ‡ 1939. † 1937 § 1940

II. VOLUME OF TRAFFIC: RAILWAY, SEA-BORNE SHIPPING AND CIVIL AVIATION

(Monthly averages)

		1938	1947	1948	1949	1950	1950 I	1950 II	1950 III	1950 IV	1951 I	1951 Jan.	1951 Feb.	1951 Mar.
RAILWAY TRAFFIC														
Passenger-kilometres (millions)														
Burma		62.3q	34.4	40.3	9.9	14.1	10.4	18.0	23.0	24.3	26.9	22.9	28.7	29.1
India a, p		2,385b	*4,179*	4,925	5,068	..	4,960	5,768	5,058	5,100	5,382	5,198	5,102	5,847
Indochina		73.7	6.2	8.3	6.6	6.2	5.3	6.3	6.6	6.7	.	..	7.5	9.0
Korea c		169*	234	236	680	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Pakistan		..	389	511	685	734	682	799	721	733	..	..	..	..
Philippines d		39.6	18.9	23.9	31.0	29.8	28.9	35.8	25.7	30.5	..	31.9	..	..
Thailand		32.7p	86.7	108.9	113	120	130	122	106	121	..	136	.	..
Japan e, p		2,185*	7,343	6,595	5,585	5,755	4,984	5,931	5,452	5,912	5,727	6,066	5,129	5,986
Freight ton-kilometres (millions)														
Burma		90.8q	43.5	52.1	13.3	7.3	3.4	9.9	13.5	15.4	18.0	16.1	20.5	17.6
India a, p		2,968b	*2,656*	3,040	3,275	..	3,322	3,354	3,370	3,745	3,812	3,432	3,522	4,482
Indochina		27.9	3.5	6.5	10.6	11.3	10.6	11.7	11.5	11.2	13.6	12.4	11.4	17.1
Korea e		185*	83	87	*107*	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Malaya		..	22.8	26.4	27.1	33.0	32.2	32.9	34.3	32.5	33.3	30.3	31.3	38.4
Pakistan		..	128	263	302	..	344	351	334	..	.	..	..	..
Philippines d		13.5	6.8	10.4	13.6	12.5	13.3	12.6	13.3	11.6	..	12.7	..	..
Thailand		37.7p	18.6	25.0	34.0	40.0	39.7	40.7	37.4	42.3	45.8	43.0	46.0	48.3
Japan e, p		1,305*	1,751	2,109	2,375	2,561	2,359	2,365	2,365	2,846	2,668	2,515	2,499	2,990
Freight tons (thousands)														
Ceylon q		77	94	104	107	112	110	106	117	117	..	137	110	..
Hong Kong		40	11.0	7.5	3.6	28.6	18.1	23.1	37.8	35.4	27.7	31.8	22.7	28.6
Indonesia		810	852	292	415	443	399	416	474	486	485	498	436	522
INTERNATIONAL SEA-BORNE SHIPPING														
Entrances and clearances of vessels with cargo in external trade. (1000 net registered tons)														
Burma g	Entered	311p	98q	118q	99q	86q	74	93	86	125	97	95	87	110
	Cleared	361p	101q	157q	129q	106q	77	139	107	163	123	123	105	141
Ceylon	Entered	913	331	475	640	665	641	647	667	707	676	592	684	753
	Cleared	891	312	469	570	586	570	561	572	643	618	653	611	591
Hong Kong h, i	Entered	1,228	668	782	988	972	992	1,047	943	904	824	870	778	824
	Cleared	1,233	669	775	977	977	990	1,054	962	900	842	854	830	831
India	Entered	760b	*570b*	*646*	741	641	575	656	631	703	761	629	696	957
	Cleared	793b	*524b*	*570*	559	578	535	574	531	673	700	574	755	769
Indochina h, j	Entered	269	96	124	150	163	166	164	170	151	191	224	169	181
	Cleared	245	97	120	151	158	163	161	170	139	191	236	166	170
Korea h, k	Entered	1,088	90	25	31	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	.	..
	Cleared	1,083	91	25	30	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Malaya	Entered	1,354	789	951	1,195	1,222	1,086	1,203	1,257	1,341	1,369	1,263	1,285	1,459
	Cleared	1,308	699	892	1,083	1130	1,032	1,110	1,143	1,234	1,224	1,170	1,210	1,292
Pakistan p	Entered	..	128r	241	305	..	313	378	*355*	*365*	371	406	341	366
	Cleared	..	83r	176	214	..	242	241	*345*	*275*	240	211	184	326
Philippines	Entered	371†	..	450	476	..	485	448	..	..	..	459	..	..
	Cleared	436†	..	438	475	..	473	474	..	..	..	446	..	..
Thailand	Entered	72p	43	67	90	112	100	121	118	108	107	120	90	112
	Cleared	100	50	92	122	138	137	144	132	139	142	139	127	159
Japan	Entered	5,824†	623	948	1,541	844	776	860	871	870	946	846	833	1,160
	Cleared	5,785†	615	930	1,489	834	735	871	800	929	943	906	792	1,132
CIVIL AVIATION TRAFFIC l														
Passenger-kilometres (millions)														
Ceylon		—	—	0.36	0.96	0.82	0.82	0.87	0.81	0.80	0.77	0.81	0.64	0.88
India		0.11	18.61	23.65	25.56	31.30	29.35	33.35	29.48	33.01	..	.	..	..
Indonesia		..	..	8.49	10.44	12.35	13.42	11.26	12.16	12.56	13.26	13.06	12.48	14.25
Philippines		0.21	13.08	14.57	13.65	15.62	14.56	16.75	16.16	15.00	..	..	..	..
Thailand		24.5p	0.42	0.93	1.57	..	1.53	1.57	1.57	..	..	..	..	..
Freight ton-kilometres (thousands)														
Ceylon		—	0.1	1.6	7.3	9.8	10.0	10.8	9.4	9.1	8.7	9.1	8.3	8.6
India		34	273	475	853	1,868	1,963	1,708	1,804	2,056	..	..	..	..
Indonesia		..	..	389	516	534	583	349	534	580	601	594	557	653
Philippines		..	472	540	493	637	504	510	692	841	..	..	..	..
Thailand		37.7p	5.5	16.9	28.9	..	30.1	37.0	54.1	..	..	..	..	..

a. Class I railways, broad and metre gauge only.
b. Including Pakistan territory.
c. Beginning 1946, South Korea.
d. Manila Railroad Company. Annual figures relate to 12 months ending 30 June of year stated.
e. State Railways only.
f. Beginning 1947, Federal area.
g. Total number of entrances and clearances made during each voyage and excluding sailing vessels
h. With cargo and in ballast.
i. Beginning 1947, including river boats of more than 60 tons.
j. Port of Saigon.
k. Beginning 1947, South Korea.
l. Scheduled domestic and international routes, and except India, revenue traffic only.
p. Annual figures refer to 12 months beginning 1 April of year stated.
q. Annual figures refer to 12 months ending 30 September of year stated
r. 15 August 1947—31 March 1948.
* 1936.
† 1937.

III. VALUE OF IMPORTS AND EXPORTS AND BALANCE OF TRADE *

(Monthly averages in millions)

	1938	1947	1948	1949	1950	1950				1951			
						I	II	III	IV	I	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.
N. BORNEO (M$)													
Imports	0.5	1.7	2.1	2.8	4.0	2.7	3.6	4.1	5.6	5.0	5.4	3.8	5.8
Exports	0.8	1.4	2.5	3.1	7.8	4.8	5.8	8.4	12.0	12.1	11.7	12.6	12.1
Balance	+0.3	—0.3	+0.4	+0.3	+3.8	+2.1	+2.2	+4.3	+6.4	+7.1	+6.3	+8.8	+6.3
BURMA a (Rs.)													
Imports	18	39	50	31	44	37	28	47	67	55	65	49	52
Exports	41	40	63	61	61	32	87	71	54	84	77	72	103
Balance	+23	+ 1	+13	+30	+17	—5	+59	+24	—13	+29	+12	+23	+51
CEYLON (Rs.)													
Imports	20	80	83	86	97	79	110	103	97	117	114	105	132
Exports	24	74	84	89	130	99	115	139	168	178	181	175	178
Balance	+4	—6	+1	+3	+33	+20	+5	+36	+71	+61	+67	+70	+46
HONG KONG (HK $)													
Imports	52	129	173	242	317	285	273	299	411	445	453	346	535
Exports	51	105	134	206	313	227	256	352	417	517	545	449	557
Balance	—1	—24	—39	—36	—4	—58	—17	+53	+6	+72	+92	+103	+22
INDIA b (Rs.)													
Sea and air-borne													
Imports	130	372	466	467	471	336	450	482	416	537	531	512	569
Exports	142	340	360	404	502	498	330	424	559	691	594	634	846
Balance	+12	—32	—106	—63	+31	+162	—120	—58	+143	+154	+63	+122	+277
Land-borne													
Imports	..	..	71	26	30	9	24	62	27	19	25	20	12
Exports	..	..	25	22	13	3	9	21	16	10	12	8	9
Balance	..	..	—46	—4	—17	—6	—15	—41	—11	—9	—13	—11	—3
INDOCHINA (Pr.)													
Imports	16	81	197	328	353	292	283	446	392	385	380	358	417
Exports	24	39	98	95	128	110	95	148	159	227	251	288	140
Balance	+8	—42	—99	—233	—225	—182	—188	—298	—233	—158	—129	—70	—277
INDONESIA c (R)													
Imports	41	65	95	131	127	80	106	131	193	140	107	128	185
Exports	57	29	87	123	228	124	193	287	313	271	219	332	261
Balance	+16	—36	—8	—8	+101	+44	+87	+156	+120	+131	+112	+204	+76
KOREA, SOUTH (US$)													
Imports	..	15.9	15.8	11.6	..	7.4	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Exports	..	0.7	1.6	1.2	..	2.9	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Balance	..	—15.2	—14.2	—10.4	..	—4.5	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
MALAYA d (M$)													
Imports	46	114	149	154	243	174	200	266	333	425	405	421	447
Exports	50	110	147	143	334	191	217	385	545	590	549	608	612
Balance	+4	—4	—2	—11	+91	+17	+17	+119	+212	+165	+144	+187	+165
PAKISTAN e (Rs.)													
Imports	..	20	71	113	97	71	79	112	125	139	197	112	107
Exports	..	65	77	84	110	91	106	121	124	301	245	355	304
Balance	..	+45	+6	—29	+13	+20	+27	+9	—1	+162	+48	+243	+197
PHILIPPINES f (P.)													
Imports	22.1	85.2	97.6	94.8	59.4	73.0	53.5	60.4	50.6	55.0	60.5	52.9	51.7
Exports	19.4	44.1	53.0	42.3	55.4	47.3	46.6	53.9	69.0	84.8	81.9	100.5	72.8
Balance	—2.7	—41.1	—44.6	—52.5	—4.0	—25.7	—6.9	—1.5	+18.4	+29.8	+21.4	+47.6	+20.2
THAILAND g (Baht)													
Imports	11	93	144	191	240	231	226	241	262	280	310	213	318
Exports	17	81	168	234	329	281	270	311	330	415	344	419	487
Balance	+6	—12	+24	+43	+89	+50	+44	+70	+68	+135	+34	+206	+169
JAPAN h (U.S.$)													
Imports	89.2	43.6	56.9	75.4	81.1	79.5	82.0	70.2	92.6	170.6	125.1	153.4	233.3
Exports	92.4	14.5	21.5	42.5	68.3	47.9	59.7	70.1	95.7	95.5	81.2	81.4	123.8
Balance	+3.2	- 29.1	—35.4	—32.9	—12.8	—31.6	—22.3	—0.1	+3.1	—75.1	—43.9	—72.0	—109.5

* Monthly data are not published for Brunei and Sarawak. Annual figures converted into monthly averages are as follows:—

	1938	1947	1948	1949
Brunei (Mn. $)				
Imports	0.32	1.37	2.92	2.99
Exports	0.80	2.59	4.10	5.17
Balance	+0.48	+1.22	+1.18	+2.18
Sarawak (Mn. $)				
Imports	1.86	6.02	8.23	9.16
Exports	2.18	8.59	14.27	15.63
Balance	+0.32	+2.57	+6.04	+6.47

a **BURMA**—For 1938: sea-borne trade only; twelve months starting April. For 1947, 1948 and 1949, twelve months ending September.

b **INDIA**—Annual figures twelve months starting April. Sea and air-borne trade. Figures for April-July 1947 include Pakistan territory. Indo-Pakistan trade excluded from August 1947 to February 1948. Land borne trade: with Pakistan only.

c **INDONESIA**—Figures for March-June 1950 have been corrected to exclude the price of the exchange certificates.

d **MALAYA**—Figures relate to trade in merchandise, parcel post, silver bullion, subsidiary coins and ships' stores and bunkers.

e **PAKISTAN**—Sea-borne trade only. For 1947, eight months ending March 1948 and excluding trade with India. Export figures are revised to include exports via the port of Calcutta.

f **PHILIPPINES**—Imports, f.o.b.

g **THAILAND**—For 1938, twelve months starting April.

h **JAPAN**—Trade with Korea and Formosa included. Post-war imports include merchandise procured from U.S. property funds and goods diverted to the Japanese civilian economy from the occupation force military stocks.

IV. QUANTUM INDICES OF IMPORTS AND EXPORTS

(Base 1948 = 100)

	1938	1947	1949	1950	1950				1951			
					I	II	III	IV	I	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.
BURMA a												
Imports	244c	89	63	100	82	72	156	214	159	..	..	..
Exports	245c	57	96	47	45	66	67	70	99	..	..	..
CEYLON												
Imports	89	98	108	121	96	149	129	113	140	132	132	156
Exports	80	91	99	110	93	116	119	119	111	120	107	107
INDIA b												
Imports: All Commodities	106c	100c	115d	88	69	95	105	82	93	94	92	96
Food, drink & tobacco	..	..	100d	73	72	46	77	95	115	113	86	145
Raw materials & Semi-manufactures	..	..	114d	122	77	178	159	76	95	90	92	104
Manufactures	..	..	121d	80	66	80	93	81	84	88	92	73
Exports: All Commodities	172c	114c	102d	115	130	84	107	139	160	146	145	188
Food, drink & tobacco	..	..	117d	108	111	65	114	145	136	154	131	124
Raw materials & Semi-manufactures	..	..	96d	103	120	67	85	142	176	143	140	246
Manufactures	..	..	98d	122	141	96	113	136	161	144	153	186
INDOCHINA												
Imports	85	65	136	153	121	135	188	168	152	154	137	163
Exports	256	62	75	87	85	85	85	97	119	122	150	88
MALAYA												
Imports: All Commodities	81	85	101	137	114	129	151	155	188	..	..	..
Food, drink & tobacco	109	92	109	120	98	113	129	139	150	..	..	.
Raw materials & Semi-manufactures	83	105	82	147	91	141	172	182	207	.	.	..
Manufactures	66	73	107	85	134	131	151	149	197	..	..	..
Exports: All Commodities	73	89	98	127	109	110	145	146	137	..		..
Food, drink & tobacco	162	102	96	122	102	97	138	151	167	..	.	..
Raw materials & Semi-manufactures	60	97	93	115	98	95	129	137	126	..	..	.
Manufactures	95	59	114	173	149	166	197	179	167	..	..	..
PHILIPPINES												
Imports	..	..	99	75	85	89	65	60	72	71	66	79
Exports	157	92	119	144	130	135	150	159	193	173	247	161

a Year ending September of the year stated.

b Base April 1948-March 1949. Average of calendar year for 1948 for imports is 94 and for exports is 102. New series beginning April 1949 is linked to the old.

c Year beginning 1 April.

d Average of nine months April to December.

V. DIRECTION OF IMPORT TRADE

(Monthly averages in millions)

	1938	1947	1948	1949	1950	1950				1951			
						I	II	III	IV	I	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.
INTO BURMA a in Rs. from													
China	—	..	1.4	2.7	1.0	0.7	1.2	2.0	0.1	0.3	..	..	..
Hong Kong	0.3	..	1.1	1.5	0.5	0.4	0.6	0.4	0.4	0.4	..	..	..
India	10.0	..	12.4	9.8	19.7	15.8	10.1	15.2	37.7	22.6	..	..	..
Indonesia	—	..	—	0.3	0.1	—	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.5	..	..	..
Malaya	0.5	..	1.7	2.8	1.1	1.0	0.9	1.8	0.9	1.1	..	..	..
Japan	1.2	..	0.3	1.2	4.7	0.8	0.6	9.2	8.2	15.3	..	..	..
United Kingdom	3.3	..	23.2	8.7	9.8	12.5	4.8	9.6	12.3	10.5	..	..	..
United States	0.6	..	1.8	1.1	1.3	1.8	1.3	1.4	0.7	0.9	..	..	..
INTO CEYLON in Rs. from													
Burma	2.9	5.6	14.3	12.8	19.0	1.8	37.5	21.5	15.4	17.9	19.7	10.5	23.4
China	0.1	0.2	2.0	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.3
India	4.3	10.6	10.5	12.7	15.1	14.5	13.1	15.5	17.4	20.8	15.5	22.4	24.6
Indonesia	1.4	—	0.3	0.5	0.9	1.3	0.9	0.9	0.5	0.8	2.1	0.3	—
Malaya	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.7	0.6	0.4	1.3	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.5	0.3
Pakistan	..	..	0.9	1.0	1.1	0.9	1.3	1.3	1.0	2.3	1.4	3.6	1.8
Thailand	0.5	—	0.7	3.3	4.7	12.7	3.2	1.3	1.8	1.8	1.3	2.1	2.1
Japan	1.3	0.5	1.1	1.5	2.6	0.4	2.2	5.3	2.4	6.3	4.3	6.9	7.7
United Kingdom	4.0	12.8	14.3	15.4	19.2	16.3	16.2	21.0	23.2	23.6	24.2	21.7	24.8
United States	0.4	9.4	6.3	6.1	2.9	2.8	2.7	3.0	3.1	2.8	2.4	2.9	3.1
Canada	0.1	5.6	0.7	0.9	1.7	0.2	6.1	0.3	0 3	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.1
Australia	0.5	9.6	10.4	8.5	6.7	7.3	3.8	6.5	9.3	9.9	5.7	9.6	14.4
INTO HONG KONG in HK$ from													
N. Borneo	0.2	0.6	0.8	1.0	1.0	1.3	1.0	0.9	0.8	1.8	1.0	1.4	2.9
Burma	0.4	1.4	2.9	1.5	1.5	0.1	1.8	0.6	3.5	0.6	1.3	0.1	0.4
Ceylon	--	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.4	—	0.4
China	19.4	31.8	35.9	49.5	71.4	49.3	62.7	82.6	91.2	78.2	77.5	58.0	99.2
India	1.0	3.8	4.0	7.5	14.0	27.8	8.6	6.9	12.7	20.3	15.7	15.4	29.9
Indochina	2.9	1.7	2.5	1.8	2.5	2.0	1.6	4.7	1.8	2.3	2.3	1.8	2.7
Indonesia	3.4	1.8	3.4	3.3	6.7	5.8	6.1	6.1	8.7	8.4	10.1	8.0	6.9
Korea, South	..	—	3.5	3.1	1.9	4.8	2.3	0.5	—	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
North	..			4.6	1.6	4.3	1.6	0.5	—	—	—	—	—
Malaya	0.6	8.5	7.1	9.0	24.9	7.9	7.5	26.7	57 9	71.2	63.9	42.4	107.2
Pakistan	..	--	—	2.8	7.8	8.1	6.1	9.1	8.0	22.6	19.7	7.9	40.2
Philippines	0.2	1.2	0.8	1.3	1.4	0.8	1.5	1.2	2.1	1.1	0.5	1.7	1.1
Thailand	3.0	5.0	8.0	9.2	15.2	11.4	15.2	18.4	15.7	11.4	7.2	11.9	15.1
Japan	1.6	3.0	6.6	6.7	19.2	4.0	6.3	17.8	48.5	51.3	66.8	44.3	42.8
United Kingdom	4.7	13.7	25.1	32.3	33.7	38.9	33.2	31.2	31.6	43.7	42.8	50.2	38.0
United States	4.6	24.9	32.3	47.9	54.7	57.0	56.3	45.0	60.4	26.9	29.5	19.9	31.2
Canada	0.5	1.7	3.0	4.8	4.2	4.3	3.7	3.5	5.1	6.2	9.9	4.9	3.8
France	0.3	1.4	1.9	2.8	3.7	3.7	5.0	2.2	3.9	9.4	6.3	6.3	15.6
Oceania	1.1	4.4	4.7	5.5	6.7	9.1	9.0	3.5	5.2	7.9	11.9	6.9	4.9
INTO INDIA b in Rs. from													
Burma	18.9	7.5	16.0	13.5	6.6	1.6	3.6	7.2	14.1	22.2	24.3	17.9	24.3
Malaya	3.2	6.6	5.8	10.5	11.8	10.2	10.7	17.8	8.5	18.3	18.0	14.6	22.2
Pakistan	..	..	12.5c	61.0	34.0	9.3	25.4	71.2	3.1	19.8	25.1	20.5	14.0
Japan	13.0	—	1.1	21.3	6.2	3.9	4.6	8.8	7.5	12.6	11.4	17.2	9.1
United Kingdom	40.1	93.8	113.5	144.4	97.7	86.5	103.8	98.2	102.5	104.5	116.6	104.4	92.6
United States	9.5	97.7	86.6	83.2	82.8	51.2	109.4	102.4	68.1	101.3	71.9	106.0	126.1
Canada	0.6	7.9	5.9	10.8	8.8	5.5	10.7	12.2	6.6	31.3	29.1	18.5	46.3
Australia	1.7	8.6	19.5	18.7	33 2	52.2	30.5	18.7	31.6	18.5	18.9	19.0	17.6
INTO INDOCHINA d in Pr. from													
China	1.2	0.3	8.9	10.6	9.3	8.7	10.5	10.0	8.1	6.3	4.8	4 4	9.7
Hong Kong	1.2	1.2	1.1	1.3	1.2	0.9	0.7	0.8	2.5	0.3	0.3	0.1	0.4
India and Pakistan	0.5	1.7	2.4	7.0	2.6	2.6	2.1	2.9	2.7	2.6	2.6	5.2	0.1
Indonesia	0.7	1.2	3.6	6.1	9.2	8.1	8.3	9.2	11.4	8.8	8.6	8.0	9.8
Thailand	0.3	0.4	5.3	3.3	2.1	2.3	2.3	1.9	1.9	1.8	1.3	2.3	1.8
United States	0.8	17.4	24.9	29.5	20.8	17.2	18.7	23.0	24.0	13.2	11.4	7.2	20.9
France	8.5	49.7	123.2	237.8	275.0	214.0	195.4	359.7	298.3	309.1	309.2	291.0	327.1
INTO INDONESIA in R. from													
Burma	0.6	1.2	2.0	4.0	5.6	0.3	4.6	7.0	10.5	4.4	2.6	4.0	6.6
China	0.7	3.0	2.3	2.5	0.7	0.4	0.7	0.8	1.0	0.7	0.3	0.5	1.2
Hong Kong	0,5	1.9	2.1	3.2	6 8	3.8	4.7	8.1	11.6	12.3	10.3	11.1	15.5
India	0.9	1.3	1.2	1.8	7.0	4.3	5.7	5.6	10.9	10.3	13.0	8.9	9.2
Malaya	3.4	4.4	2.6	2.7	6.1	2.6	2.8	6.1	12.6	12.2	10.3	10.6	16.0
Philippines	0.1	—	0.1	—	—	—	—	—	0.1	0.1	0.1	—	—
Thailand	0.2	0.9	2.7	4.7	3.2	2.3	0.9	2.4	7.2	3.7	1.4	1.7	7.9
Japan	6.0	5.1	15.6	9.3	13.4	5.3	12.7	13.5	22.1	20.3	13.6	21.8	25.5
Netherlands	8.4	9.6	18.4	28.0	21.9	15.5	15.9	21.0	32.2	16.3	11.8	15.6	21.6
United Kingdom	3.0	5.4	7.9	13.4	9.3	6.2	7.7	9.2	12.9	11.0	9.8	10.0	13.1
United States	3.6	25.5	21.2	33.2	26.3	14.0	21.0	30.6	36.0	22.9	17.4	19.3	31.9
Australia	1.1	1.5	2.7	0.5	0.9	0.2	0.2	1.3	2.0	1.8	1.5	1.4	2.4

V. DIRECTION OF IMPORT TRADE *(Contd.)*

(Monthly averages in millions)

	1938	1947	1948	1949	1950	1950				1951			
						I	II	III	IV	I	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.
INTO MALAYA in M$ from													
N. Borneo,	..	0.7	1.3	1.8	4.3	2.4	3.2	5.2	6.2	6.2	7.2	4.1	7.3
Brunei	..	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.4	0.2	0.2	0.5	0.6	0.8	0.7	1.0	0.7
Sarawak	..	4.1	6.4	6.8	13.6	8.7	9.9	17.0	18.9	19.8	21.9	18.3	19.1
Burma	..	2.7	7.7	6.9	3.4	2.0	3.4	3.5	4.8	8.1	6.8	12.7	4.7
Ceylon	..	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.2	0.3	0.6
China	..	10.2	9.5	7.8	10.3	8.6	10.5	11.8	10.2	12.8	13.2	14.2	10.9
Hong Kong	..	5.0	3.8	4.0	7.5	4.9	5.3	8.2	11.6	12.4	11.8	14.5	11.0
India	..	3.1	2.9	5.6	16.3	17.3	14.3	14.5	19.1	30.2	25.4	31.9	33.3
Indochina	..	0.9	2.5	1.8	1.5	1.4	1.6	1.5	1.5	1.8	1.3	2.6	1.6
Indonesia	..	21.8	29.4	26.5	64.2	33.1	44.8	74.9	103.9	144.3	143.5	133.4	155.9
Thailand	..	9.7	10.7	16.2	26.5	12.3	24.5	31.0	37.6	43.4	41.6	47.3	41.3
Japan	..	0.5	1.1	3.3	7.8	2.8	5.2	10.4	12.8	18.5	16.8	18.4	20.4
United Kingdom	..	22.0	28.7	31.9	42.2	40.3	36.6	40.9	50.8	55.0	50.9	54.1	59.9
United States	..	11.5	17.4	9.4	7.4	6.5	6.1	7.5	9.6	10.7	8.8	10.5	12.7
Canada	..	1.6	1.9	1.5	1.4	2.2	1.0	1.3	1.0	1.5	1.1	1.9	1.7
Oceania	..	7.2	7.9	8.9	9.5	9.2	9.6	9.3	10.0	11.1	11.6	7.9	13.7
INTO PAKISTAN e in Rs. from													
Burma	..	..	0.7	2.0	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.4	0.2	.	0.9	..	0.2
Ceylon	..	..	2.4	1.4	2.3	1.6	1.4	4.1	2.0	..	3.1	.	1.3
China	..	..	5.7	4.5	5.1	1.6	2.4	6.7	9.8	..	7.1	..	8.0
India	..	..	37.4	14.2	11.5	7.5	9.1	12.2	17.2	..	13.2	..	3.0
Malaya	..	..	1.8	0.8	1.2	0.6	0.9	1.3	1.7	..	3.5	..	1.7
Japan	..	..	0.8	7.3	14.4	16.0	13.4	12.1	16 2	..	21.6	..	19.3
United Kingdom	..	..	22.5	29.0	25.0	17.5	20.9	29.2	32.3	..	55.9	..	30.8
United States	..	..	6.6	10.0	8.7	7.7	7.8	10.4	8.8	..	12.0	..	8.2
INTO PHILIPPINES f in Ps. from													
Burma	..	..	..	0.3	—	—		—	—	—	.	..	..
China	..	2.4	3.8	1.7	—	0.1		—	—	—	..	..	..
Hong Kong	..	—	0.1	0.2	1.5	1.1		1.5	2.1	1.5	..	..	..
India	..	0.7	1.1	0.9	0.4	0.4		0.4	0.2	0.3	..	..	..
Indonesia	..	0.4	2.5	2.7	0.7	0.3		1.0	1.2	1.6	..	..	..
Thailand	..	0.4	0.1	0.9	0.2	0.2		—	0.2	0.9	..	..	..
Japan	..	0.2	0.3	2.7	2.4	3.1		1.2	1.8	3.2	..	..	..
United Kingdom	..	0.5	0.9	0.8	0.9	0.8		1.1	0.8	1.1	..	..	..
United States	..	73.3	78.3	76.3	42.5	48.4		37.1	35 6	42.9	.	.	..
INTO THAILAND g in Baht from													
Burma	—	0.3	0.4	1.2	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
China	1 4	4.9	11.1	8.3	..	..	..	..	..	..	.	..	..
Hong Kong	0.1	35.4	36.3	32.9	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
India	1.3	1.5	2.9	13.3	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Indochina	0.1	3.7	2.2	0.8	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Indonesia	0.8	0.3	1.2	5.0	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Malaya	1.0	20.5	47.5	34.8	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Philippines	—	1.3	1.1	0.5	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Japan	1.6	—	3.4	15.8	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
United Kingdom	6.6	8.5	10.0	16.5	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
United States	1.1	26.0	13.0	29.8	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
INTO JAPAN g in US$ from													
China	22.9	0.4	2.1	3.8	6.5	8.3	4.7	7.1	5.8	9.9	6.8	10.3	12.7
Hong Kong	..	0.4	0.3	..	—	—	..	..	0.1	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.3
India	4.1	0.8	2.3	1.1	1.5	1.5	2.0	0.3	2.2	3.4	3.2	1.5	5.6
Indonesia	2.1	0.1	1.0	1.3	1.1	0.6	1.1	1.1	1.6	6.3	3.4	4.6	11.0
Malaya	2.4	0.4	0.9	1.8	3.3	0.9	1.2	4.4	6.6	4.8	4.1	3.6	6 8
Korea	16.5	0.2	0.4	0.3	1.3	0.1	4.7	0.3	0.3	0.5	0.3	3.1	0.8
Philippines	0.8	0.2	0.8	1.1	1.9	1.7	1.1	1.9	2 9	3.3	1.9	4.1	5.9
United Kingdom	1.5	0.8	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.5	0.2	0.8	1.3	1.2	0.8	1.8
United States	21.7	40.3	36.7	48.0	35.6	35.4	37.7	32.0	37.2	48.1	32.8	41.5	69.9
Australia	2.0	0.1	0.7	2.3	6.4	9.5	4.6	2.2	9.2	12 7	6.1	18.9	13.0
Canada	2.2	—	0.3	0.5	1.3	2.1	1.5	0.9	0.6	4.2	3.8	4.7	4.0

a. Burma: Prewar data refer to period October 1938 to September 1939; 1948 and 1949 annual figures refer to twelve months ending September.

b. India: 1947 figures are averages for January-July, and 1948 are averages for nine months, April-December.

c. Excluding imports from Pakistan by land in 1948.

d Indochina: Data for 1947 are averages for April-December.

e. Pakistan: Sea and airborne trade only. Annual figures for 1948 and 1949 are for years beginning 1st April.

f. Thailand: Prewar data refer to year ending March 1940.

g. Japan: Imports from India include Burma and Pakistan in 1938 and Pakistan in 1947 and 1948.

VI. DIRECTION OF EXPORT TRADE

(Monthly averages in millions)

	1938	1947	1948	1949	1950	1950				1951			
						I	II	III	IV	I	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.
FROM BURMA a * in Rs. to													
Ceylon	2.2	..	11.6	11.6	18.9	9.4	27.0	24.5	14.5	19.4	..	..	..
China	0.2	..	3.7	8.1	1.9	1.6	5.7	0.3	0.2	2.0	..	..	..
Hong Kong	0.3	..	1.6	1.0	1.3	—	1.5	1.1	2.4	0.2	..	..	..
India	22.0	..	25.2	23.1	11.4	2.3	11.0	16.6	15.8	22.5	..	..	..
Indonesia	0.6	..	2.7	3.9	8 6	2.0	10.7	13.9	7.8	8.3	..	..	..
Malaya	2.8	..	10.1	8.1	3.5	2.1	6.3	2.1	3.6	5.7	..	..	..
Pakistan	..	..	..	2.8	0.5	0.3	0.4	0.6	0.6	0.2	..	..	..
Philippines	—	..	0.2	0.9	—	—	—	—	—	—	..	..	..
Japan	0.8	..	0.1	1.3	8.1	6.1	14 6	5.9	5.8	11.2	..	..	..
United Kingdom	5.7	..	5.6	3.2	2.3	2.0	2.3	2.1	2.8	0.3	..	..	..
United States	0.1	..	0.6	0.5	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.5	..	..	..
FROM CEYLON in Rs. to													
India	0.7	2.9	1.7	1.7	2.4	1.1	0.3	2.3	5.9	4.1	4.3	4.8	3.0
Pakistan	..	..	1.5	1.8	3.2	1.7	3.3	5.0	2.8	1.6	2.1	2.9	0.5
Japan	0.1	—	0.1	0.4	0.1	—	0.1	0.1	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.6
United Kingdom	11.8	25.4	25.1	27.9	30.5	19.5	22.6	39.6	40.2	43.0	46.9	39.4	42.7
United States	2.8	10.0	13.8	9.5	27.7	20.5	22.0	33.7	36.4	25.8	36.4	27.2	13.8
Canada	0.8	4.7	3.3	3.7	7.8	5.9	8.9	6.8	9.5	9.2	6.3	11 2	10.0
Australia	0.9	5.9	7.0	7.0	9.5	7.3	14.1	7.8	8.8	9.0	10.5	7.0	9.4
New Zealand	0.5	1.9	1.8	2.8	3.2	3.6	6.1	0.6	2.6	3.2	3.3	1.3	4.9
From HONG KONG in HK$ to													
N. Borneo	0.1	0.6	0.6	0.8	1.2	0.9	1.1	1.6	1.3	1.9	2.3	1.7	1.7
Burma	0.3	0.6	1.0	1.5	2.4	0.9	4.7	3.2	0.7	0.9	0.6	0.9	1.1
Ceylon	0.1	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.8	0.1	0.7	1.2	1.2	1.0	0.8	1.2	0.8
China	19.2	22.2	23.4	48.7	121.6	90.3	79.2	127.2	190.7	231.9	249 1	188.4	258.1
India	0.4	2.2	4.0	3.2	2.0	1.2	1.2	2.4	3.0	2.6	3.2	2.6	2.1
Indochina	1.9	1.5	1.6	1.6	1.9	1.3	2.7	1.9	1.7	1.7	1.6	1.4	2.2
Indonesia	1.2	4.4	5.7	4.6	10.2	4.8	12.4	10.1	13.7	21.3	25.2	22.6	16.0
Korea, South	..	—	4.9	6 2	1.9	4.3	3.1	—	0.1	1.0	—	0.1	2.9
North	..			4.1	0.6	1.3	1.3	—	—	—	—	—	—
Malaya	3.1	17.9	17.1	20.0	45.2	23.8	30.6	52.4	74.1	98.1	111.2	84.4	98.7
Pakistan	..	..	—	4.5	10.9	4.0	5.6	23.9	10.3	20.2	10.2	23.9	26.4
Philippines	0.8	5.1	11.4	8.6	6 9	3.0	7.2	8.0	9.3	6.3	8.1	4.7	6.1
Thailand	1.3	7.2	11.7	9.7	8.2	5.9	7.0	13.2	6.8	8.1	11.9	3.7	8.7
Japan	0.3	1.3	4.1	5.3	10.1	10.3	8.2	8.1	13.7	28.2	14.5	32.3	37.9
United Kingdom	1.8	3.2	6.3	11.6	14.0	11.3	21.3	11.7	11.7	18.6	21.8	14.6	19.3
United States	4.3	12.6	12.7	19.5	25.7	16.2	22.4	35.7	28.5	16.7	21.9	16.1	12.2
Canada	0.2	0.2	0.6	1.2	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.9	0.8	1.7	1.2	0.7	3.2
Oceania	0.3	1.0	1.7	3.4	3.6	3.4	3.2	3.7	4.2	4.2	3.4	4.6	4.6
FROM INDIA b in Rs .to													
Burma	8.4	11.1	10.0	7.8	18.8	16.8	7.3	11.6	39.5	14.5	19.7	13.9	9.7
Ceylon	4.2	11.4	9.5	11.9	14.0	15.4	10.3	13.6	16.7	19.9	13.6	20.5	25.6
China	1.3	5.2	5.6	1.8	2.0	2.1	0.4	4.0	1.5	5.7	1.9	0.2	14.9
Pakistan	..	..	40.6c	43.5	23.8	8.9	16.8	42.5	27.0	14.8	19 8	11.6	13.1
United Kingdom	46.0	78.7	78.3	93.4	95.7	87.8	75.5	94.5	124.8	129.7	135.6	118.3	135.2
United States	11.2	61.2	59.7	57.1	80.5	84.6	60.0	87.5	90.0	116.2	81.2	127.1	140.2
Canada	1.7	9.3	6.9	7.6	10.5	12.9	8.7	10.6	10.0	15.9	17.4	10.6	19.7
Australia	2.5	14.5	17.2	20.4	23.3	21.7	19.0	26.0	26.4	27.6	30.1	23.3	29.3
FROM INDOCHINA d in Pr. to													
China	0.6	0.3	2.1	0.6	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.2	3.6	10.6	—	—
Hong Kong	3.3	1.3	11.2	13.2	15.5	11.9	13.1	23.8	12.9	9.8	3.3	13.8	12.2
Malaya	2.5	4.0	9.4	9.9	11.6	5.4	—	10.9	13.9	13.4	9.8	14.5	16.0
Thailand	0.1	0.7	3.7	4.9	3.1	4.2	2.9	1.4	3 8	1.7	1.7	2.2	1.2
United States	2.1	2.5	2.2	1.0	25.6	35.4	5.9	26.7	34.5	34.6	61.6	42.2	—
France	11.4	18.0	42.6	46.6	49.9	37.1	25.7	71.2	65.4	107.9	133.2	134.4	56.1
FROM INDONESIA in R. to													
Burma	—	—	—	0.2	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Hong Kong	1.1	0.6	1.6	1.0	1.2	0.8	1.1	1.2	1.7	1.6	1.4	2.2	1.4
India	0.4	—	0.1	0.5	0.8	0.4	0.8	1.7	0.2	1.1	—	2.9	0.4
Malaya	10.7	6.1	16.6	29.8	81.8	31.9	51.6	108.5	135.2	102.3	88.5	117.3	101.4
Philippines	0.5	0.1	0.8	1.1	1.4	0.9	1.6	1.7	1.5	0.9	0.1	2.1	0.6
Thailand	0.2	—	0.3	0.8	1.0	1.0	0.8	1.4	0.9	1.1	1.7	1.3	0.2
Japan	1.8	0.4	2.1	2.8	3.0	1.5	2.7	2.6	5.0	20.3	12.7	24 8	23.2
Netherlands	11.5	12.9	31.0	41.2	55.9	43.4	57.1	59.9	63.4	61.2	49 9	75.2	58.2
United Kingdom	3.1	0.7	1.7	5.5	8.2	3.0	7.3	11.5	10.9	7.8	5.3	10.4	7.9
United States	8.2	5.3	15.2	19.4	36.0	13.7	26.4	51.4	52.4	34.7	30.2	40.5	33.4
Australia	2.4	0.2	0.8	1.8	3.8	2.0	4.0	5.1	4.1	5.7	3.1	8.6	5.4

VI. DIRECTION OF EXPORT TRADE *(Contd.)*

(Monthly averages in millions)

	1938	1947	1948	1949	1950	1950				1951			
						I	II	III	IV	I	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.
FROM MALAYA IN M$ to													
N. Borneo	..	0.8	1.2	1.6	2.6	2.0	2.2	2.9	..	3.1	2.6	3.1	3.6
Brunei	..	0.1	0.2	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.8
Sarawak	..	2.1	2.6	2.3	4.9	3.3	4.1	5.4	6.6	4.8	5.3	4.2	5.0
Burma	..	0.7	1.0	1.0	1.1	0.8	0.7	1.4	1.3	2.3	0.7	2.0	4.2
Ceylon	..	0.2	0.8	2.3	1.9	1.9	2.1	1.6	1.8	2.1	3.4	1.9	0.8
China	..	0.7	1.3	0.7	10.4	—	0.2	8.5	32.9	27.9	9.7	42.3	31.8
Hong Kong	..	4.1	3.4	5.5	16.9	6.3	6.2	17.9	37.3	44.4	57.4	27.1	48.7
India	..	4.3	5.3	5.1	6.3	4.4	4.7	9.5	6.8	9.3	8.5	5.5	13.9
Indochina	..	0.3	0.7	0.7	1.0	0.7	0.7	1.6	1.0	1.4	1.6	1.4	1.2
Indonesia	..	10.5	16.1	11.6	21.4	14.0	17.7	21.3	32.7	45.6	40.9	47.9	48.0
Korea	..	—	—	0.1	0.1	—	0.4	—	—	—	—	—	—
Pakistan	..	—	0.6	0.8	1.0	0.5	0.8	1.8	1.1	1.1	1.4	1.6	0.2
Philippines	..	0.1	0.5	0.9	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.8	0.7	1.6	1.2	1.4	2.3
Thailand	..	1.3	4.1	3.8	6.0	5.3	5.0	8.4	5.3	6.8	6.2	6.1	8.1
Japan	..	1.1	1.6	2.5	9.6	2.3	3.6	16.0	16.6	15.9	16.0	12.9	18.9
United Kingdom	..	17.3	20.0	17.0	45.6	27.5	29.6	50.6	74.8	89.9	92.3	81.1	96.2
United States	..	36.6	38.2	35.8	87.3	50.8	63.7	89.6	144.3	117.6	121.3	133.7	97.7
Canada	..	3.7	3.7	3.0	8.2	4.3	3.8	9.5	15.2	16.6	18.7	13.0	18.3
Oceania	..	3.5	5.1	7.2	14.1	11.7	10.2	15.2	19.1	25.5	22.5	19.2	34.7
FROM PAKISTAN e * in Rs. to													
Burma	..	..	0.3	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	..	1.6	..	..
Ceylon	..	..	1.2	0.6	0.8	0.3	0.8	0.7	0.5	..	1.5	..	5.1
China	..	..	2.7	1.0	2.6	0.4	3.6	1.3	3.3	..	9.3	..	9.1
Hong Kong	..	..	2.1	4.9	9.6	8.8	13.4	9.6	6.0	..	13.0	..	15.1
India	..	..	19.1	7.1	2.9	0.5	2.2	9.2	1.4	..	0.3	..	1.3
Malaya	..	..	0.1	0.1	0.1	—	1.1	0.1	0.2	..	0.1	..	0.1
Thailand	..	..	—	—	—	—	—	0.1	—	..	0.1	..	0.4
Japan	..	..	1.0	4.4	12.1	0.4	10.3	23.5	14.3	..	36.1	..	72.3
United Kingdom	..	..	12.3	14.7	36.2	21.7	14.4	13.4	23.6	..	46.6	..	38.9
United States	..	..	10.9	10.0	10.1	10.4	8.1	10.3	14.2	..	23.0	..	12.9
FROM PHILIPPINES * in Ps. to													
China	..	0.2	0.3	0.1	0.2	0.2		0.2	0.1	0.2	.	..	..
Hong Kong	..	0.5	0.5	0.8	0.4	0.5		0.2	0.3	0.4	..	..	..
India	..	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.1	0.1		0.1	0.1	0.1	..	..	..
Indonesia	..	0.8	0.9	0.4	—	—		—	—	—	..	..	..
Korea	..	—	0.3	—	0.4	0.1		—	1.3	—	..	..	..
Malaya	..	1.2	0.1	0.1*	—	—		—	—	—	..	..	..
Thailand	..	0.1	0.1	—	0.1	0.1		0.1	—	—	..	..	..
Japan	..	0.4	2.6	1.9	3.7	2.3		3.0	6.6	5.0	.	..	..
United Kingdom	..	1.4	0.6	0.5	0.9	0.9		1.0	0.8	1.9	..	..	..
United States	..	25.4	34.8	30.6	40.9	36.6		44.2	43.3	57.8	..	..	..
FROM THAILAND f in Baht to													
N. Borneo	—	0.4	2.1	2.3	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Burma	—	0.3	1.5	1.0	..	..	..	.	..	..	..	..	..
Ceylon	0.5	0.1	1.4	8.5	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
China	0.2	4.3	21.7	7.3	..	.	..	..	..	.	..	..	..
Hong Kong	2.0	18.0	16.3	17.4	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
India	2.0	4.0	16.7	31.2	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Indochina	—	0.5	1.0	0.5	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Indonesia	0.2	0.6	8.0	12.8	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Korea	—	0.6	1.9	—	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Malaya	10.7	32.4	39.6	68.5	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Philippines	0.2	1.0	5.5	4.5	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Japan	1.0	—	0.5	14.2	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
United Kingdom	0.4	2.0	4.5	11.5	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
United States	0.1	10.1	36.8	38.3	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
FROM JAPAN g * in US$ to													
China	35.0	0.8	0.3	1.0	4.8	3.2	3.9	4.1	8.1	6.4	5.8	6.0	7.3
Hong Kong	..	..	..	..	5.3	4.4	2.5	4.4	9.7	6.4	10.3	4.9	3.8
India	4.5	0.7	0.7	5.4	1.7	0.9	1.6	1.9	2.3	2.2	2.4	1.1	3.1
Indonesia	2.5	2.0	4.7	2.3	3.9	3.5	3.3	3.5	5.1	8.3	6.7	5.5	12.9
Korea	21.6	1.6	1.5	1.4	1.5	1.8	1.4	0.9	2.1	0.7	0.2	0.3	1.6
Malaya	0.5	0.3	0.5	1.3	1.5	0.4	2.1	1.6	1.9	4.5	2.6	3.5	7.3
Philippines	0.8	0.1	0.3	1.8	1.5	1.8	0.7	0.6	3.0	1.5	1.6	1.3	1.7
United Kingdom	3.2	1.7	1.4	3.5	2.2	1.2	2.9	2.4	2.2	2.7	1.5	2.4	4.1
United States	10.1	1.7	5.5	6.6	14.9	11.4	13.5	17.7	17.2	15.8	14.5	17.6	15.3

* Including Re-exports.

a. Burma: Prewar data refer to period October 1938 to September 1939; 1948 and 1949 annual figures refer to twelve months ending September

b. India: 1947 figures are averages for January-July, and 1948 are averages for nine months, April-December.

c. Excluding exports to Pakistan by land in 1948.

d. Indochina: Data for 1947 are averages for April-December.

e. Pakistan: Sea and airborne trade only. Annual figures for 1948 and 1949 are for years beginning 1st April.

f. Thailand: Pre-war data refer to year ending March, 1940.

g. Japan: Exports to India include Burma and Pakistan in 1938 and Pakistan in 1947 and 1948.

VII. QUANTITIES OF EXPORTS OF SELECTED COMMODITIES

(Monthly averages in thousand tons)

	1938	1947	1948	1949	1950	1950				1951			
						I	II	III	IV	I	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.
RICE													
Burma	253.3	67.0	102.2	99.2	99.2	50.4	146.0	116.7	83.7	111.0	86.0	97.0	151.0
Thailand	115.4	32.9	67.6	101.3	123.2	115.8	135.1	115.7	126.1	159,5	119.0	185.2	174.2
Indochina	77.8	3.6	13.4	7.8	8.7	11.0	12.8	6.1	4.8	..	22.8	26.5	..
TEA													
Ceylon	8.9	10.9	11.2	11.6	11.1	8.7	12.9	12.1	10.5	10.5	11.5	10.0	10.2
China	3.5	1.4	1.5	..	..	..	.	..	..	..	..	..	..
India	13.4a	16.1a	14.2	16.1	14.8	13.5	7.7	15.8	22.1	19.4	22.9	13.8	16.4
Pakistan	..	..	..	1.2	0.5	1.2	0.1	0.1	0.8	1 2	0.2	2.8	0.5
Indochina	0.2	—	—	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	..	..	..	..
Indonesia	6.0	0.3	0.8	1.8b	2.4	1.5	2.1	3.1	3.9	*2.9*	2.5	3.2	*3.0*
Japan	1.4	0.3	0.3	0.6	0.6	0.4	0.4	0.7	0.9	—	0.8	1.0	..
COPRA AND COCONUT OIL c													
Ceylon	8.7	5.1	9.2	8.6	7.5	3.4	4.9	8.2	13.3	10.1	9.0	8.7	12.5
Hong Kong d	0.1	1.6	0.7	0.3	0.4	0.2	0.3	0.5	0.4	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.3
Indonesia e	25.8f	7.6	12.1g	15.8	14.1	11.9	16.0	12.1	16.4	17.3	17.2	18.7	16.0
Malaya	13.4	4.0	7.1	9.8	11.2	11.7	10.2	11.6	11.4	9.1	10 9	9.0	7.5
N. Borneo	0.4	0.2	0.3	0.8	1.4	1.3	1.4	1.5	1.2	C.8	0.7	0.8	0.9
Philippines	28.9f	51.2	35.3	33.4	41.0	26.0	28.4	53.9	55.9	40.2	41.7	47.8	31.0
Sarawak	0.1	—	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1
Thailand	..	..	..	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.1	0.5	0.2	..	..	..	..
PALM KERNELS AND OIL c													
Indonesia h	14.2	0.2	3.3	8.5	8.2	5.6	8.0	11.8	7.6	2.8	0.7	6.7	1.0
Malaya	3.1	4.1	4.4	5.0	5.2	5.2	4.6	6.6	4.5	5.3	5.3	2.9	7.7
GROUND NUTS AND OILc													
Hong Kong	1.2	0.2	0.4	0.7	1.8	1.5	2.8	1.5	1.3	1.9	1.1	2.1	2.4
India	22.0	3.0	5.5	4.0	5.8	14.4	1.5	1.5	5.9	17.4	13.2	15 4	23.7
NATURAL RUBBER													
Brunei	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.2
Burma	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.6	0.8	1.6	1.3	0.3	0.2	1.1	0.3	1.9	1.0
Ceylon	4.2	7.0	7.8	7.7	10.0	10.2	8.2	10.6	11.1	10.9	12.0	11.7	9.1
Indochina	5.0	4.3	3.5	3.5	4.4	5.7	2.7	4.1	5.0	4 5	5.9	4.3	3.2
Indonesia	25.5	24.3	36.6	35.7	56.8	29.7	63.6	68.3	65.5	*62.3*	*63.9*	60.1	62.8
Malaya i	31.4	54.2	57.5	57.5	55.7	58.3	39.0	60.7	64.8	49.0	42.9	59.2	45 0
N. Borneo	0.8	1.3	1.7	1.7	2.0	1.8	1.8	2.2	2.3	1.8	2.0	1.8	1.7
Sarawak	1.5	3.0	3.4	3.3	4.7	4.5	4.6	5.3	4.4	3.2	3.9	3.2	2.5
Thailand	3.5	4.5	8.1	8.0	9.5	8.1	9.9	11.0	9.0	10.1	9.6	10.2	10.4
COTTON RAW													
India	38.6	19.3	8.0	4.2	2.7	7.6	1.5	1.0	0.6	1.7	0.7	0.7	3.8
Pakistan	..	..	13.6	14.0	17.2	14.7	26.1	20.0	8.2	..	42.4	..	38.0
COTTON YARN (ton)													
Hong Kong	..	..	..	1,387	2,109	2,100	2,551	2,627	1,160	..	1,126	2,453	..
Malaya	197	..	22	152	388	377	108	707	361	260	218	367	194
Japan	1,745	903	458	803	892	1,307	813	947	499	1,160	746	1,320	1,415
COTTON PIECE GOODS (mn. metres)													
Hong Kong	..	..	..	7.4	10.8	6.0	7.3	17.3	12.9	..	16.8	8.8	..
India	14.6	22.9	23.5	35.5	93.7	92.3	67.4	77.4	109.3	141.5	120.0	154.1	150.3
Malaya	2.0	4 0	7.5	5.2	14.5j	12.68	13.3	13.5	18 8	19.2	21.6	18.7	17.2
Japan (mn. sq. metres)	158.4	26.4	28.2	52.2	76.9	71.5	78.5	77.4	80 0	72.1	61.4	59.1	95.8
JUTE RAW													
India			20.0	15.4	0 6	2.0	0.2	—	—	—	—	—	—
Pakistan	55.9	23.4	16.1	17.3	50.0	34.7	36.8	51.1	77.4	..	96.1	..	76.6
JUTE MANUFACTURES													
India													
Bag	49.0k	35.0	39.8	36.4	29.6	32.0	25.7	30.2	30.4	30.2	36.7	23,5	30.4
Cloth	29.9k	32.6	38.6	27.9	24.4	27.8	20.9	23.7	25.1	19.5	18.2	21.2	19.2
HEMP RAW													
Philippines	11.8	7.2	6.2	5.3	7.9	5.9	8.6	9.1		13.6	..	..	..
TIN CONCENTRATES													
Burma	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	*0.1*	0.2	0.5	0.4	*0.1*	*0.1*	*0.1*	*0.1*	0.1
Indonesia	1.2	1.3	2.8	2.6	2.6	2.6	2.6	2.5	2.9	2.4	2.3	2.8	2.0
Thailand	1.1	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.9	0.7	0.9	0.9	1.0	*1.0*	*1.0*	*1.0*	1.0
TIN METAL													
Hong Kong	..	..	0.2	0.3	0.1	0.2	0.1	—	0.2	—	—	—	—
Malaya	5.2	2.7	4.0	4.6	6.9	5.9	7.1	8.3	6.4	5.4	4,6	5.5	6.1
PETROLEUM													
Indonesia m	505.6	64.2	320.8	474.4	*536.9*	421.8	500.8	602.4	*665.6*	*318.6*	300.0	532.2	*123.6*
Malaya	30.5n	36.3	82.1	131.3	164.8	164.8	159.7	177.3	158.2	166.7	128.1	158.9	213.0

a Including territory of Pakistan.
b Federal territory only.
c Expressed in terms of oil equivalent: figures under column for 1938 refer to averages for the period 1934-1938.
d Coconut oil only.
e Copra only.
f 1935-1939.
g Excluding exports to Singapore.
h Palm oil only
i Net exports
j Unit changed in 1950 to million square meters.
k Converted at 2.25 lbs. per bag and 0.50 lb. per yard of cloth
m Petroleum and products.
n Motor spirit only.

VIII. INDEX NUMBERS OF UNIT VALUE OF IMPORTS AND EXPORTS

(Base 1948 = 100)

	1938	1947	1949	1950	1950				1951			
					I	II	III	IV	I	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.
BURMA												
Imports	24a	89b	109b	132c	132	138	125	63	67	..	..	..
Exports	17a	82b	102b	102c	99	97	98	122	124	..	..	..
CEYLON												
Imports	23.0	93	95	98	99	98	98	103	109	107	110	111
Exports: All Commodities	32.5	98	106	144	134	129	143	172	188	175	191	199
Tea	36.3	99	109	129	135	122	124	135	141	133	143	147
Rubber	56.2	108	90	218	125	154	237	357	410	375	420	436
All coconut products	14.5	94	111	145	147	145	138	152	170	159	170	181
Other export products	25.1	98	93	124	116	113	124	142	165	151	164	181
INDIA												
Imports: All Commodities	..	..	97a	103	102	101	100	108	123	121	122	126
Food, drink & tobacco	..	..	108a	104	106	101	103	108	103	100	104	106
Raw materials & semi-manufactures	..	..	106a	113	113	108	110	122	155	154	154	158
Manufactures	..	..	90a	96	94	95	92	103	119	118	115	123
Exports: All Commodities	..	..	104a	110	106	111	110	111	121	113	122	127
Food, drink & tobacco	..	..	115a	127	121	134	127	126	140	117	151	152
Raw materials & semi-manufactures	..	..	111a	114	111	121	112	111	129	123	133	132
Manufactures	..	..	97a	103	100	103	103	106	111	107	108	118
INDO-CHINA												
Imports	7.8	65	123	118	124	107	121	119	130	126	133	131
Exports	11.1	68	128	148	131	121	176	164	190	213	196	161
INDONESIA												
Exports: All Commodities c	31	..	105	177	128	137	191	245	312	305	325	307
Estate produce	38	..	124	185	155	157	195	237	300	292	310	297
Peasant produce	27	..	92	171	109	124	185	245	305	299	319	298
Forest produce	12	..	78	99	88	95	100	114	139	123	148	147
MALAYA												
Imports: All commodities	36	90	101	115	99	102	115	142	149	..	..	..
Food, drink & tobacco	23	78	95	100	99	97	107	107	108	..	..	..
Raw materials	53	85	106	175	136	133	171	260	314	..	..	..
Manufactures	41	106	99	106	98	99	105	124	122	..	..	..
Exports: All commodities	43	86	98	173	118	135	183	258	298	..	..	..
Food, drink & tobacco	24	93	103	120	119	111	137	115	138	..	..	..
Raw materials	52	88	94	214	125	157	229	346	394	..	..	..
Manufactures	32	88	97	110	96	98	111	135	165	..	..	..
PHILIPPINES												
Imports	..	..	104	79	82	73	81	86	89	92	85	89
Exports	24.8	89	69	77	70	74	80	85	87	82	82	96

a Year beginning 1 April of the year stated.

b Year ending September of the year stated.

c Weighted wholesale price index numbers of 18 export products (f.o.b. prices excluding the value of foreign exchange certificates).

IX. INDEX NUMBERS OF WHOLESALE PRICES

(1948 = 100)

	1938	1947	1949	1950	1950				1951			
					I	II	III	IV	I	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.
BURMA												
All items	24	..	123	115	110	107	119	126	117	119	117	116
Cereals	31	..	96	98	85	94	108	106	91	90	88	94
Others (non-food)	17	..	161	196	188	186	185	223	236	238	236	234
INDIA												
All items	27	81	104	109	106	107	111	112	116	113	115	119
Food articles	27	78	104	110	104	107	114	114	110	111	111	110
Industrial raw materials	23	85	108	117	114	113	119	122	133	128	129	141
Semi-manufactured articles	32	80	104	108	106	106	108	110	117	113	117	120
Manufactured goods	29	81	101	102	102	102	103	103	109	104	109	114
Miscellaneous	20	93	108	136	124	129	145	145	143	139	140	149
KOREA (Seoul)												
All items	..	61	137	..	202	209	..	..	..	..	..	..
Fertilizers	..	79	300	..	664	719	..	..	..	..	..	..
Textile raw materials	..	48	144	..	196	188	..	..	..	..	..	..
Textiles	..	48	140	..	179	130	..	..	..	..	..	..
Building materials	..	55	143	..	187	188	..	..	..	..	..	..
PHILIPPINES (Manila)												
General	20	96	87	77	78	73	76	83	84	81	84	86
THAILAND (Bangkok)												
General	6	105	93	95	90	94	96	101	99	97	99	101
VIET-NAM (Saigon) *												
General index	6	68	125	123	115	114	130	132	136	132	135	140
Rice & paddy	6	65	125	104	104	93	116	104	96	94	98	97
Other food products			125	125	124	124	122	130	132	131	129	137
Fuel & mineral products	7	68	136	153	154	153	154	155	159	160	158	158
Raw materials	14	50	120	172	121	139	195	236	267	255	272	274
Semi-finished products	7	76	123	117	121	116	114	115	126	123	124	129
Manufactured products	4	88	125	105	103	101	110	110	122	118	118	130
JAPAN												
All items	1	38	163	192	177	178	197	215	246	231	247	260
Edible farm products	1	34	178	207	195	208	218	206	225	215	218	243
Processed foods	1	38	163	157	157	152	159	161	166	162	167	171
Textiles	1	34	215	262	221	224	280	322	389	363	397	405
Chemical fertilizer	1	47	138	180	161	169	188	204	221	215	223	227
Metal & products	2	42	143	211	173	177	221	270	351	299	358	397
Building materials	1	44	141	166	154	148	161	199	236	221	235	251
Fuels	1	36	150	167	176	162	160	168	176	177	176	176
Miscellaneous	1	31	155	179	167	168	180	203	226	216	227	234

Note: Figures under the column for 1938 refer to 1938-40 for Burma, year ending August 1939 for India and January to June 1939 for Saigon.

* New series for Saigon beginning 1949, which is linked to the old series.

X. INDEX NUMBERS OF COST OF LIVING AND RETAIL PRICES

(1948 = 100)

	1938	1947	1949	1950	1950				1951			
					I	II	III	IV	I	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.
BURMA (Rangoon)												
Cost of living	28	108	135	114	116	113	121	108	105	108	107	102
Food	24	115	142	120	119	115	132	113	111	115	112	105
CAMBODIA (Phnom-Penh)												
Cost of living	..	84	138	154	145	149	161	162	159	156	161	162
Food	..	80	133	..	138	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
CEYLON (Colombo)												
Cost of living	..	97	98	105	104	103	106	106	109	108	109	109
Food	..	91	104	112	111	110	114	112	114	114	115	114
HONG KONG												
Cost of living	..	101	112	117	122	115	116	116	126	..	..	126
Food	..	100	118	126	135	125	124	121	129	..	..	129
INDIA (Bombay)												
Cost of living	35	92	101	103	101	102	106	104	107	105	106	110
Food	32	99	105	109	106	108	114	109	113	110	112	118
INDONESIA (Djakarta)												
Food	8	179	97	113	105	118	111	119	179	139	204	194
KOREA (Seoul)												
Retail price index	..	65	126	368	195	201	514	561	..	..	..	..
Food (Republic)	..	66	123	..	206	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
LAOS (Vientianne)												
Cost of living	..	86	115	..	108	..	123	126	116	116	116	115
Food	..	88	109		105	..	..	.	..	..	..	..
MALAYA (Kuala Lumpur)												
Cost of living												
Chinese	..	106	94	101	94	97	102	109	125	120	126	130
Indian	..	103	94	99	94	96	100	107	125	120	126	128
Malay [a]	..	..	98	108	100	103	111	118	132	128	132	136
PAKISTAN (Karachi)												
Cost of living	..	..	..	95	97	94	94	94	96	95	96	98
Food	..	..	..	93	96	93	91	92	96	94	96	99
PHILIPPINES (Manila)												
Cost of living	25	106	94	92	92	89	92	97	97	97	98	97
Food	24	108	93	86	88	82	85	91	92	92	93	90
THAILAND (Bangkok)												
Cost of living	8	100	96	99	98	102	97	100	110	104	113	114
VIET-NAM (Saigon)												
Cost of living	..	74	122	125	121	122	127	130	132	133	133	132
Food	..	74	120	114	115	112	114	117	115	116	116	113
JAPAN (Urban)												
Cost of living	..	57	138	129	131	125	129	129	143	139	142	147
Food	..	64	134	120	124	119	122	116	132	126	131	139

a January 1949 = 100.

XI. WHOLESALE PRICE QUOTATIONS OF SELECTED COMMODITIES[a]

(Monthly averages per ton)

	Currency Unit	1938	1948	1949	1950	1950				1951			
						I	II	III	IV	I	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.
RICE													
Burma	Rs.	..	266	264	..	257	265	..	..	..	..	..	..
India	Rs.	..	436	442	432	432	432	432	432	432	432	432	432
Indonesia	R.	..	870	870	..	1,070	940	920	..	2,177	1,550	2,630	2,350
Japan	000 Y.	0.21†	24.9	29.7	..	29.1	29.1	29.7	..	36.9	36.9	36.9	36.9
Korea	000 W.	..	127	145	..	268	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Pakistan	Rs.	..	917	977	*419*	427	507	*426*	*422*	*416*	*412*	*422*	*415*
Thailand	Baht	..	738	713	696	670	703	692	723	702	679	685	742
Viet-Nam	Pr.	106	2,100	2,630	2,170	2,180	1,910	2,410	2,160	1,993	1,960	2,010	2,010
WHEAT													
India	Rs.	..	566	532	410	407	409	412	412	412	412	412	412
Korea	000 W.	..	73	95	..	224	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Pakistan	Rs.	..	326	317	*275*	316	287	*230*	*253*	*262*	252	268	265
SUGAR													
India	Rs.	..	990	846	773	769	769	769	787	822	822	822	822
Indonesia	R.	..	2,290	1,550	2,906	2,867	3,500	2,943	2,313	3,243	2,850	3,350	3,530
Korea	000 W.	..	411	745	..	1,150	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Pakistan	Rs.	..	925	964	*1,008*	981	989	*1,014*	*1,021*	1,021	1,021	1,021	1,021
Philippines	P.	72	307	313	284	276	289	293	278	*240*	*248*	*240*	*232*
Thailand	000 Bhat	..	4.61	5.66	5.33	4.20	4.36	6.20	6.55	6.22	6.22	6.28	5.76
PEPPER													
Cambodia	000 Pr.	0.41	35.1	95.4	137	136	126	147	140	152	144	161	153
Indonesia	000 R.	..	5.47	19.4	..	46.2	..	..	..	..	..	48.0	..
Malaya	000 M$	..	3.2	8.2	15.0	14.5	14.0	16.7	15.9	18.2	17.3	19.1	18.3
Thailand	000 Baht	..	23.8	46.0	95.6	106 9	103.6	87.0	84.9	104.1	105.6	102.5	..
TEA													
Ceylon	Rs.	1,540	3,590	4,170	4,450	4,900	3,700	4,530	4,730	..	4,916	5,071	..
India	Rs.	..	3,590	3,660	..	4,010	3,840	4,100	..	3,814	3,792	4,123	3,549
Pakistan	Rs.	..	4,696	4,248	..	3,862	4,343	..	..	..	*3,571*	..	*3,307*
Indonesia	R.	..	2,200	2,870	5,520	4,580	5,170	6,330	6,000	6,920	6,750	7,000	7,000
U.K.	U.S. $	630	1,190	..	950	924	888	999	986	..	985	938	..
U.S.A.	U.S. $	..	1,290	1,243	1,146	1,207	1,066	1,133	1,180	..	1,121	..	..
TOBACCO													
India	Rs.	..	..	5,820	6,850	6,060	7,140	7,100	..	3,940	6,990	6,990	6,830
Pakistan	Rs.	..	2,551	2,368	2,550	2,651	2,281	2,435	2,840	4,198	4,019	4,287	4,287
Philippines	P.	123	816	796	1,151	925	1,296	1,241	1,142	..	..	..	..
VEGETABLE OIL [b]													
Ceylon	Rs.	181	1,006	1,006	1,390	1,332	1,259	1,421	1,546	..	1,863	2,042	..
India	Rs.	..	666	760	850	810	860	890	830	944	950	932	950
Indonesia	R.	..	1,220	940	1,700	920	1,780	1,980	2,100	2,160	2,160	2,160	2,160
Malaya	M$	149‡	1,160	913	1,092	1,014	1,029	1,150	1,204	1,589	1,472	1,476	1,670
Pakistan	Rs.	..	2,649	2,986	*3,338*	3,281	2,737	*3,662*	*3,483*	*3,340*	*3,403*	*3,403*	*3,215*
Philippines	P.	130	980	620	676	670	640	673	720	880	800	910	930
COPRA													
Ceylon	Rs.	109	531	591	826	786	762	842	916	..	1,105	1,189	..
India	Rs.	..	986	1,289	1,486	1,462	1,398	1,476	1,609	1,577	1,635	1,551	1,545
Indonesia	R.	..	390	470	1,190	860	1,250	1,280	1,380	..	1,450	1,550	..
Malaya	M$	59	646	518	650	607	615	693	738	921	866	952	945
Philippines	P.	60	515	311	360	354	347	367	370	*477*	*433*	*493*	*506*
Thailand	Baht	..	..	2,320	3,292	3 189	2,892	3,113	3,972	4,729	4,408	5,092	4,687
COTTON, RAW													
India	Rs.	..	1,830	1,800	..	1,310	..	..	..	1,730	1,730	1,730	1,730
Korea	000 W.	..	630	929	..	1,650	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Pakistan	Rs.	..	1,879	2,109	..	1,867	1,934	2,554	..	*3,434*	*2,907*	*3,939*	*3,456*
U.K.	£	..	..	232	329	286	292	341	398	..	439	439	..
JUTE, RAW													
India	Rs.	..	1,070	1,110	1,100	1,100	1,120	1,100	1,100	1,470	1,100	1,100	2,200
Pakistan	Rs.	..	958	849	675	673	713	664	623	934	731	899	1,171
U.K.	U.S.$	90	385	..	315	315	326	311	311	437	366	413	531
U.S.A.	U.S.$	95	408	..	343	348	358	340	326	467	379	461	560

XI. WHOLESALE PRICE QUOTATIONS OF SELECTED COMMODITIES[a] *(Contd.)*

(Monthly averages per ton)

	Currency Unit	1938	1948	1949	1950	1950				1951			
						I	II	III	IV	I	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.
HEMP													
Philippines	P.	118	883	892	887	884	832	882	950	..	*1,392*	*1,225*	..
WOOL, RAW													
India	Rs.	..	1,963	2,030	3,990	2,930	3,240	3,090	6,710	5,820	5,370	6,040	6,040
Pakistan	Rs.	..	..	3,180	..	3,920	4,260	5,480	.	..	7,260	..	8,070
SILK, RAW													
India	000 Rs.	..	52.9	66.9	84.1	78.6	90.8	93.3	73.6	78.3	74.0	81.5	79.3
Japan	Mn. Y.	..	1.57	2.29	2.58	2.67	2.02	2.92	3.26	4.6	4.2	4 8	4.8
Korea	Mn. W.	..	7.1	11.6	.	16.7	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
HIDES													
India	Rs.	..	2,150	2,010	2,000	2,040	1,710	2,060	2,200	4,320	3,030	5,240	4,680
Pakistan	Rs.	..	1,8 0	2,296	*2,568*	2,412	2,473	*2,349*	*2,992*	3,963	3,937	3,937	4,016
Thailand	000 baht	..	8.2	9.9	12.3	11.8	11.7	12.3	15.4	23.5	19.7	25.2	25.8
RUBBER, NATURAI													
Ceylon	Rs.	816	1,367	1,257	3,417	1,742	2,543	3,939	5,453	..	6,239	7,033	..
Indonesia	R.	..	1,176	1,077	5,958	1,993	4,323	7,343	10,173	12,100	11,510	12,600	12,190
Malaya	M$	539	944	855	2,386	1,170	1,711	2,820	3,959	4,753	4,510	4,961	4,786
Thailand	baht	..	6,531	6,233	12,155	6,920	9.139	12.249	20,312	21,779	21,250	22,025	22,060
U.K	£	66	119	108	306	145	210	363	504	597	550	637	604
U.S.A.	US$	324	483	388	906	423	606	1,078	1,517	1,594	1,570	1,623	1,588
Viet-Nam	000 Pr.	1.0	7.2	8.3	15.9	8.2	10.5	18.7	26.2	30.0	28.0	31.0	31.0
COAL													
India	Rs.	..	16.1	16.0	15.5	15.5	15.5	15.5	15 5	15.5	15 5	15 5	15.5
Indochina	Pr.	23	342	542	533	589	581	580	582	583	583	583	583
Pakistan	Rs.	..	83	89.2	89.3	89 2	89.2	89.3	89.3	78.7	78.7	78.7	78.7
Korea	000 W.	..	3.61	3.80	..	4.33	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
TIN													
Malaya	000 M$	1.60	4 53	4.46	6.04	4 86	4.99	6.37	8.33	10.94	10.67	12.13	10.04
Thailand d	000 baht	..	..	20.04	22.16	16.79	17.94	22.82	31.10	40.9	38.8	45.6	38 3
U.K.	£	187	543	596	734	590	536	733	1,027	1,218	1,211	1,447	1,297
U.S.A.	US$	932	2,188	2,186	2,108	1,661	1,703	2,155	2,914	3,674	3,786	4,028	3,209
PIG IRON													
India	Rs.	..	111	111	105	105	105	105	105	105	105	105	105
Japan e	000 Y.	0.02	3.1	4.7	..	9.8	9.8	..	..	..	..	..	..
Korea	000 W.	..	15.0	27.5	..	50.3	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
CEMENT													
India	Rs.	..	83.7	81.2	81.2	81.2	81.2	81.2	81.2	81.2	81.2	81.2	81.2
Indochina	Pr.	30	746	961	986	994	996	976	976	976	976	976	976
Japan	000 Y.	..	2.79	4.12	5.01	4.99	4.78	4.82	5.43	6.41	6.10	6.43	6.70
Korea	000 W.	..	21.8	40.6	..	48.0	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Pakistan	Rs.	..	..	93 8	*93.8*	93.8	93 8	*93.8*	*93.8*	*93.8*	*93.8*	*93.8*	*93.8*
COTTON YARN													
India	Rs.	..	2,620	3,130	3,060	3,060	3.060	3,060	3,060	3,420	3,060	3.530	3,660
Indochina	000 Pr..	1.8	50.1	45.0	50.8	55.1	50.2	47.6	50.1	57.3	54.0	54 0	64 0
Japan	000 Y.	..	87	280	373	359	357	357	417	474	463	463	496
COTTON FABRICS													
India	000 Rs.	..	4.1	3 9	3.6	3.7	3.6	3.6	3.6	3.9	3.6	4 0	4.0
Japan (Y. per meter)		..	..	62	79	58	59	90	108	117	109	115	126
JUTE BAGS (per hundred)													
India	Rs.	..	133	146	156	156	156	156	156	190	156	156	260
Pakistan	Rs.	..	151	174	*196*	214	200	*187*	*179*	194	185	188	210
JUTE (hessian)													
U.K.	U.S.$	183.7	658	..	559	559	559	559	559	718	718	718	718
U.S.A.	U.S.$	172.8	660	..	777	651	586	759	1,112	1,183	1,152	1,199	1,199

a. For details regarding specification and market centre see "Explanatory Notes to Table X" in Vol. I No. 1, and Footnotes to Table XI in Vol. I No. 2, and No. 3, and Statistical Supplement to Vol. I.

b. Coconut oil for Ceylon, Malaya and the Philippines; groundnut oil for India; palm oil for Indonesia; and mustard oil for Pakistan.

c. India, raw cotton, Bengal Fine M.G. substituted from third quarter 1949 for original specification the price of which in the third quarter of 1949 was 1309.

e. Pig Iron No. 2 for casting substituted beginning July 1950, the quotation for the original specification i.e. Pig Iron for steel being 11.9 for July 1950.

d. Tin Ore.

g. October.

i. December.

‡ 1939

† 1937

XII. FINANCIAL STATISTICS[a]

	1938	1948	1949	1950	1950				1951			
					I	II	III	IV	I	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.
BURMA (million Rs.)												
Currency and Deposit Money												
Currency: In circulation	..	351	418	394	411	412	385	369	436	391	439	479
Deposit money b	..	174	202	207	193	204	225	204	198	184	193	218
Commercial Banks												
Total deposits	108	199c	233	246	226	246	267	246	238	225	233	257
Assets: Cash	3	72c	109	69	72	74	74	57	48	45	49	50
Short term: Government	..	16	18	18	23	19	15	14	17	17	17	17
Short term: Other	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	170	166	180	164
Long term: Government	..	..	..	4	—	5	6	6	6	6	6	6
Union Bank of Burma												
Deposits: Total	..	108d	149	226	136	189	291	287	277	317	260	254
Government	..	44d	46	163	70	122	223	237	237	279	219	213
Foreign assets: Total	..	88d	172	216	141	173	271	279	283	320	275	268
Local assets:												
Short term: Government	..	6d	20	18	23	19	15	14	17	17	17	17
Long term: Government	..	10d	10	13	7	16	14	15	13	13	13	13
Bank Clearings	68	157c	128	139	123	139	151	144	..	..	..	..
CEYLON e (million Rs.)												
Currency and Deposit Money												
Currency—Net active	35	222	222	256	230	238	261	295	330	315	337	337
Deposit money b	..	579	621	475	424	438	488	549	..	..	..	..
Commercial Banks												
Total deposits	..	641	687	660	624	613	663	741	..	..	..	..
Assets: Cash	..	269	284	151	175	105	146	178	..	..	..	..
Short term	..	127	137	205	151	173	242	252	..	..	..	..
Long term	..	193	230	187	185	182	178	203	..	..	..	..
Central Bank of Ceylon												
Deposit: Total	..	..	..	189	..	..	177f	184	..	216	219	..
Government	..	..	..	20	..	..	3f	27	..	32	24	..
Foreign assets: Total	..	..	..	533	..	..	506f	552	..	592	616	..
Local assets												
Short term: Government	..	..	..	14	..	..	14f	14	..	14	14	..
Long term: Government	..	..	..	4	..	..	..	4	..	2	..	
Bank Clearings	91	396	461	549	519	525	614	590	672	762	625	630
HONG KONG (million HK$)												
Currency and Deposit Money												
Notes: Total issued	..	778	840	803	803	801	802	807	807	808	808	806
Bank Clearings	..	689	917	1,199	878	945	1,408	1,566	1,615	1,880	1,400	1,565
INDIA g (1000 million Rs.)												
Currency and Deposit Money												
Currency: Net active	3.03h	13.58	12.38	12.49	12.54	12.86	12.22	12.35	13.37	13.04	13.44	13.63
Deposit money	1.35h	8.07	7.06	6.83	6.85	6.80	6.76	6.94	7.01	6.99	6.78	7.27
Scheduled Banks												
Total deposits	2.27	9.90	8.85	8.71	8.61	8.66	8.75	8 82	9.04	8.98	9.08	9.06
Assets: Cash	0.22	1.28	1.04	0.98	0.87	0.90	1.08	1.08	0.89	0.82	0.92	0.93
Short term	1.16	4.33	4.47	4.40	4.45	4.68	4 26	4.20	5.21	4.93	5.24	5.47
Long term	..	4.65i	3.74	3.73	3.60	3.60	3 82	3.90	..	3.70	..	..
Reserve Bank of India												
Deposits: Total	0.32	4.29	3.10	2.94	2.95	2.70	3.04	3.08	3.03	2.88	3.01	3 20
Government j	0.15	2.57	1.75	1 68	1.77	1.56	1.66	1.75	1.82	1.80	1 77	1 88
Foreign assets: Total	1.15	13.74	8.95	9 68	8.86	8.76	8.50	8 62	9 01	8.83	8 96	9.24
Banking Department	0.04	3.44	1.87	2.08	2.02	1.94	2.22	2.16	2.03	2.05	1.98	2.06
Issuing Department	1.11h	10.30	7.08	6.60	6.84	6.82	6.28	6.46	6.98	6.78	6.98	7.18
Local assets:												
Short term: Government	0.02	0.01	0.03	0.02	0.01	0.02	0 03	0.02	0.03	0.04	0.03	0 02
Short term: Others	0.02	0.09	0.12	0.10	0.14	0.13	0.07	0.05	0.14	0.09	0.07	0.25
Long term: Total	0.39	2.83	5.01	5.21	5.10	5.27	5.23	5.27	5.70	5.47	5.78	5.86
Banking Department	0.06	0.75	1.00	0.76	0.86	0.59	0.71	0 90	0.93	0.80	1.01	0 99
Issuing Department	0.32	2.08	4.01	4.45	4.24	4.68	4.52	4.37	4.77	4.67	4.77	4.87
Banking Clearings	1.54	5.07	4.77	4.70	4.83	4.61	4.60	4.74	5.99	6.22	5.59	6.16
INDO-CHINA (million Pr.)												
Commercial Banks												
Total deposits	..	1,126	1,284	1,616	1,574	1,520	1,602	1,769	1,902	1,966	1,813	1,927
Assets: Short term	..	338	600	707	735	683	689	721	611	652	631	549

XII. FINANCIAL STATISTICS *(Contd.)*

	1938	1948	1949	1950	1950				1951			
					I	II	III	IV	I	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.
INDONESIA (million R.)												
Currency and Deposit Money												
Notes: Total issued k	188h	1,577h	1,740	2,313	2,068	2,104	2,347	2,729	..	2,851	2,904	..
Deposits Money	83h	884h	756	1,661	1,927	1,239	1,543	1,937	..	2,372	2,418	..
Bank of Java												
Foreign assets: Total	128h	..	551	868	735	726	770	1,242	1,504	1,412	1,522	1,578
Local assets:												
Short term: Government	3h	916h	972	2,007	1,622	1,930	2,030	2,445	2,782	2,996	2,849	2,501
Short term: Others	61h	..	70	138	69	120	169	194	173	176	168	175
JAPAN (1000 million Y.)												
Currency and Deposit Money												
Notes: Net Active n	2.9	338.1	294.0	315.2	296.8	298.1	307.4	357.2	377.9	377.4	379.3	376.4
Deposit money	5.3h	266.9	364.2	452.1	430.4	437.8	457.7	482.3	556.8	525.0	541.4	604.0
All banks except Bank of Japan												
Total deposits	19.1	326.4	613.9	893.4	806.7	852.3	917.1	997.4	1,132.2	1,073.9	1,111.6	1,211.2
Assets: Cash	1.5h	52.6	101.5	141.3	134.5	130.5	147.4	152.5	..	159.4	170.3	..
Short term	12.7	248.3	496.8	825.8	715.8	786.1	855.5	945.8	1,029.3	995.0	1,024.2	1,068.6
Long term	5.8	68.2	115.4	117.4	106.4	110.2	120.4	132.7	141.0	138.2	141.4	143.4
Bank of Japan												
Deposits: Total	0.4	29.5	57.2	56.7	48.8	49.7	51.0	77.4	164.7	111.6	163.6	219.0
Government	0.3	10.4	35.2	37.8	30.6	32.3	32.7	55.6	139.6	89.0	139.2	190.7
Local assets:												
Short term: Government	—	69.0	94.1	78.1	84.5	70.2	89.9	67.7	51.1	53.7	49.6	50.0
Short term: Others	0.1	54.6	77.8	123.2	101.3	128.6	140.2	122.9	110.9	101.0	103.7	128.0
Long term: Government	1.8	153.8	182.3	143.7	170.2	145.1	123.2	136.3	133.4	128.6	134.9	136.8
Bank Clearings	..	235.7	549.2	808.0	656.4	746.6	819.6	1,009.4	..	949.5	1,003.9	..
KOREA n (1000 million W.)												
Currency and Deposit Money												
Notes: In circulation	0.31	28.90	42.06	..	60.45	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Deposit money	0.12	11.48	20.65	..	25.92	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
All Banks												
Total deposits	0.52	32.93	56.93	..	69.88	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Assets: Cash	0.05	8.31	15.44	..	26.05	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Short term	1.05	32.16	52.92	.	85.90	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Long term	0.41	3.25	3.53	..	4.14	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Bank of Korea												
Deposits: Total	0.62	5.18	7.86	..	8.83	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Government	0.06	0.13	0.54	..	0.68	..	..	..	.	..	..	..
Local assets:												
Short term: Government	0.09	0.14	0.30	..	0.46	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Short term: Others	0.97	8.20	13.45	..	34.64	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Long term	0.28	0.18	0.41	..	0.54	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Bank Clearings	0.20	20.57	39.87	..	58.13	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
MALAYA (million M$)												
Currency and Deposit Money												
Currency: Total issued p	..	407	402	456	403	410	461	589	682	661	684	702
PAKISTAN (million Rs.)												
..												
Currency and Deposit Money												
Currency: In circulation	..	1,708	1,741	1,794	1,804	1,789	1,704	1,871	2,158	2,135	2,181	2,158
Deposit money	..	990	999	1,055	1,045	1,081	1,085	1,007	1,061	1,022	1,030	1,131
Scheduled Banks												
Total deposits	..	1,092	1,072	1,180	1,151	1,198	1,202	1,168	1,227	1,193	1,202	1,287
Assets: Cash	..	218	204	148	182	161	127	124	129	126	128	132
Short term	..	322	423	562	519	511	521	698	849	855	863	829
State Bank of Pakistan												
Deposits: Total	..	1,164	1,015	795	796	766	796	825	957	846	969	1,055
Government	..	911	795	607	579	595	600	656	811	717	834	882
Foreign assets:												
Banking Department	..	1,009	722	342	361	308	315	383	577	483	584	664
Issuing Department	..	1,203	1,618	1,274	1,475	1,352	1,130	1,139	1,321	1,288	1,338	1,337
Local assets:												
Short term: Government	..	117	111	103	106	103	102	103	59	60	64	53
Short term: Others	..	..	3	37	17	10	40	82	118	125	134	95
Long term:	..											
Banking Department	..	65	178	269	301	286	247	242	178	157	165	214
Issuing Department	..	25	97	469	297	411	519	650	781	801	802	752
Bank Clearings		300	325	362	355	327	366	400	602	594	620	592

XII. FINANCIAL STATISTICS (*Contd.*)

	1938	1948	1949	1950	1950				1951			
					I	II	III	IV	I	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.
PHILIPPINES (million P.)												
Currency and Deposit Money												
Currency: Net active	141h	513	551	598	568	574	601	647	690	680	688	702
Deposit Money	73h	547	547	549	493	530	545	627	564	559	557	567
Commercial Banks												
Total deposits	..	870h	818	827	771	805	818	916	858	851	861	863
Assets: Cash	65h	313	203	209	181	174	184	286	*232*	236	*222*	*238*
Short term	210	..	563	570	586	579	568	548	595	588	599	599
Long term	49	..	84	69	55	68	75	78	76	77	79	71
Central Bank of Philippines												
Deposits: Total	..	..	144	164	133	138	148	238	185	184	175	194
Foreign assets: Total	..	400	607	482	442	447	459	582	561	549	555	579
Local assets:												
Short term: Others	..	..	30	63	85	62	63	42	54	57	49	56
Long term	..	..	20	130	103	122	139	156	163	161	164	163
Bank Clearings	26	381	443	462	460	461	445	481	453	487	428	444
Total Bank Debits to Checking Account	175	772	723	674	597	639	676	783	759	799	744	735
THAILAND (million baht)												
Currency and Deposit Money												
Notes: in circulation r	191h	2,237	2,505	2,610	2,454	2,486	2,564	2,938	*2,569*	*3 390*	*3,562*	*3,754*
Deposit money s	..	1,014	1,020	1,061	991	1,008	1,059	1,187	*1,205*	*1,223*	*1,137*	*1,254*
Commercial Banks												
Total deposits	53	786	829	867	820	821	864	963	990	1,012	955	1,003
Assets: Cash	13	369	330	274	263	252	255	325	313	311	264	364
Short term	28	406	546	609	625	600	598	610	689	671	708	689
Long term	8	102	101	96	88	90	104	103	95	104	92	90
Bank of Thailand												
Deposits: Total	..	717	1,166	1,447	1,308	1,451	1,542	1,488	1,437	1,373	1,492	1,446
Government	..	338	444	455	437	501	511	370	309	277	379	270
Foreign assets: Total	..	1,722	2,268	3,207	2,865	3,111	3,274	3,579	3,700	3,561	3,656	3,882
Local assets:												
Short term: Others		434	604	903	820	827	933	1,033	1,306	1,169	1,355	1,393
Long term:												
Banking Department	..	5	150	142	143	143	140	144	155	155	155	155
Issuing Department	..	951	755	500	500	500	500	500	512	499	499	537
Bank Clearings	..	774	1,112	1,544	1,350	1,357	1,653	1,814	2,100	2,269	1,797	2,235

a **Net active currency:** Total issued less holdings in all banks including the central bank and the government treasuries. **Currency in circulation:** Total issued less holdings in all banks including the central bank. **Deposit money:** Deposits of all banks (including central bank) subject to checks but excluding inter-banking liabilities and central government deposits. **Cash of commercial banks:** Cash and balances with banks. **Short term assets:** Short term assets such as loans, advances and bills discounted. **Long term assets:** Securities, bonds, debentures etc.
Figures refer to end of period for months and average of month ends for quarterly and annual figures, except in the case of bank clearings where monthly totals and their averages are used.

b Demand deposits of commercial banks.

c Average March-December.

d Average April-December.

e Figures up to and including 1949 are end of quarter and their averages. 1950 figures are end of months and their averages.

f Average of August and September.

g Figures for 1938 are average of weeks for the twelve months ending March 1939, except where indicated under h.

h End of year.

i Average of September-December.

j Central and other government deposits except 1938 which includes only those of the central government.

k Total of Bank of Java notes and government paper money.

m End of year for 1938, 1948, annual average (only 11 months) for 1949.

n For first quarter, 1950, average of January and February except bank-clearing.

p The figures in the first of each month have been taken to represent end of month figures of the previous month.

r Total issued less amount held in Banking Department of the Bank of Thailand.

s Sight deposits with commercial banks and at the Bank of Thailand but excluding government deposits.

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Price in the United States: $0.50.

August 1951, 4,000

UNITED NATIONS

ECONOMIC SURVEY OF ASIA AND THE FAR EAST, 1950

550 pp., 6" x 9"

Published in August 1951

U.N. Publication Sales No. 1951. II. F.4. $3.50. English Edition.

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ECONOMIC SURVEY OF ASIA AND THE FAR EAST, 1949

xix + 483 pp., 6" x 9"
Published in June, 1950
U.N. Publication Sales No. 1950. II. F. 1. $3.00. English Edition

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Printed in Singapore by the Straits Times Press Ltd.